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NATURE OF EDUCATION.

The chief difficulty with which a writer, who urges a reform in education, has to struggle, is the general ignorance of its nature,—of what it can do for mankind. If correct notions of its power were once impressed upon the public mind, so that men should feel the extent of their own educational want, improvements, which are now year after year vainly urged upon their attention, would at once be carried into effect. The utmost that is hoped, or dreamed by theorists, would be outstripped in action and practice by the energies of society, working out education, as they have worked out the arts dependent on the physical sciences. In attempting, therefore, to prove the advantage of giving increased social importance to the educational profession, it will be requisite, in the first place, to point out how much more than is usually supposed is properly included in education, and to show something of its power over human happiness.

Education, then, does not mean merely reading and writing, nor any degree, however considerable, of mere intellectual instruction. It is, in its largest sense, a process which extends from the commencement to the termination of existence. A child comes into the world, and at once his education begins. Often at his birth the seeds of disease or deformity are sown in his constitution—and while he hangs at his mother's breast, he is imbibing impressions which will remain with him through life. During the first period of infancy, the physical frame expands and strengthens; but its delicate structure is influenced for good or evil by all surrounding circumstances,—cleanliness, light, air, food, warmth. By and by, the young being within shows itself more. The senses become quicker. The desires and affections assume a more definite shape. Every object which gives a sensation; every desire gratified or denied; every act, word, or look of affection or of unkindness, has its effect, sometimes slight and imperceptible, sometimes obvious and permanent, in building up the human being; or, rather, in determining the direction in which it will shoot up and unfold itself. Through the different states of the infant, the child, the boy, the youth, the man, the development of his physical, intellectual, and moral nature goes on, the various circumstances of his condition incessantly acting upon him—the healthfulness or unhealthfulness of the air he breathes; the kind and the sufficiency of his food and clothing; the degree in which his physical powers are exerted; the freedom with which his senses are allowed or encouraged to exercise themselves upon external objects; the extent to which his faculties of remembering, comparing, reasoning, are tasked; the sounds and sights of home; the moral example of parents; the discipline of school; the nature and degree of his studies, rewards, and punishments; the personal qualities of his companions; the opinions and practices of the society, juvenile and advanced, in which he moves; and the character of the public institutions under which he lives. The successive operation of all these circumstances upon a human being from earliest childhood, constitutes his education;—an education which does not terminate with the arrival of manhood, but continues through life,—which is itself, upon the concurrent testimony of revelation and reason, a state of probation or education for a subsequent and more glorious existence.

The practical art of education has regard to a small part only of the long train of circumstances which operate upon a human being;—namely, that portion which belongs to his early life, and which is within the control of others. In this sense education means the body of practical rules, for the regulation of the circumstances about children, by which they may be trained up to the greatest perfection of their nature.

We extract the above comprehensive view of education from the *EDUCATOR*, a volume of 535 pages, published by the *Central Society of Education*, not as one of their annual volumes, but as containing matter worthy of public attention. The volume is made up of an essay, to which was awarded the prize of one hundred guineas, on the following subject—“*The expediency and Means of elevating the profession of the Educator in public estimation*”, and of four other essays out of those which were submitted in competition. The prize essay, from which the above is an extract, is by John Lalor Esq. of Trinity College, Dublin, and is a masterly argument on not merely the expediency, but the necessity and the means of giving a higher social position, and intellectual power to those who are practically engaged in education. His aim is to show that the goodness or badness of education depends almost wholly on the intelligence and moral qualities of those by whom it is carried on, and that society can never experience its rich and abundant blessings until it is recognized as the first concern of society, and enlists the energies of its best minds. Hence he dwells on the exalted nature of education in its three fold divisions; on the thousand influences which minister to the growth of the body and mind, and work out their results on the moral being; on the intelligence and virtue requisite to call forth the germs of intellectual and moral beauty, and grandeur, which lie in every human soul, and to make the vast structure of the universe subservient to the development of its capacities of thought and feeling; on the causes of the present inefficient state of the educational profession, and the means of raising the social position of educators by enlightening public opinion and making them efficient. To bring about this glorious triumph of civilization the author insists on the necessity of establishing institutions for the scientific training of teachers, and of a wise and properly adjusted school system.

We shall recur to some of the suggestions of this essay again, and also to the other valuable essays included in the volume, especially that of Mr. Simpson, the author of the well known work on Popular Education.

OBERLIN,—OR THE TRIUMPHS OF EDUCATION.

We know not a more encouraging, or beautiful example of an enlightened educationist, or of the triumphs of sound, practical, christian education, than what is presented in the following notice of Oberlin, Pastor of Walbach in the Ban de la Roche. We abridge it from an article in the London Quarterly Journal of Education.

The Ban de la Roche forms part of a range of mountains known as the Champ de Feu, separated by a deep valley from the chain of the Vorgee. Its German name, signifying the Valley of Stone, is expressive of its native barrenness. Its winter commences in September, and the snow remains undissolved till the following May. Its people, who were Lutherans, have long enjoyed, however, liberty of

conscience, and this at last gave them knowledge, and all the blessings which follow in its train, by bestowing upon them pastors who were in the highest sense religious educationists. Indeed the Ban de la Roche has been singularly fortunate in having had the work of general education carried forward with zeal and discretion by the religious instructors of its population, from the year 1750 to the death of Oberlin in 1827. The predecessor of Oberlin was M. Stouber, a man of less ardent temperament, but who, like himself, had the remarkable merit of perceiving the necessity of instructing the great body of the people, undeterred by those vain fears, and uninfluenced by those obstinate prejudices, which, in nations calling themselves enlightened, have so long opposed the progress of knowledge, upon the principle that popular ignorance and state security are inseparable. M. Stouber began his pastoral office by reforming the village schools. The principal establishment for the elementary instruction of the district was a miserable cottage, where a number of children were crowded together, wild and noisy, and without occupation. The schoolmaster, a withered old man, lay on a little bed, in one corner of the room. The dialogue between Stouber and this functionary is amusing:—

"What do you teach the children?"

Nothing, Sir.

Nothing! how is that?

Because I know nothing myself.

Why, then, were you instituted schoolmaster?

Why, Sir, I had been taking care of the Walbach pigs for a great number of years, and when I got too old and infirm for that employment, they sent me here to take care of the children."

Stouber thought that the poverty of the schoolmaster was not the only qualification for the business of teaching. He set about procuring new schoolmasters; but the trade was considered so disreputable that none of the more respectable inhabitants of the canton would undertake the office. Stouber, like a wise man, changed the title of the vocation; and though he could not obtain schoolmasters, he had no difficulty in finding superintendants for his schools under the dignified name of 'Regents.' These worthy men were soon in full activity. Stouber printed spelling books and reading lessons for the use of his pupils, and built a log-hut for a school house. The progress made by the children induced their parents to wish to read, and a system of adult instruction, during a part of the Sunday, and in the long winter evenings, was established throughout the canton.

In addition, he gave the people bibles, which they had never before seen, or even heard read, for their former minister had not possessed a copy himself. Stouber persevered in his admirable labors for fourteen years, when, his wife dying, his situation lost a principal charm, and he accepted the station of pastor to St. Thomas' Church, at Strasbourg. He found a successor in Oberlin (a native of Strasbourg, and brother of the celebrated Professor,) who had been educated for the ministry, and he was ardently looking for some cure in which his pious zeal might be fitly exercised. He entered upon his charge in 1767, in the twenty-seventh year of his age.

Oberlin's situation was a singular one, and to some minds it would have been sufficiently discouraging. He was of an enthusiastic nature, devoted to his profession, ardent in the attainment of knowledge, and anxiously desirous to communicate it to others. The people amongst whom he was thrown were still lamentably ignorant, and obstinately prejudiced against any attempts to improve them which should require a deviation from their old habits. They suffered Stouber to teach their children to read, because the schoolmaster was an ancient officer amongst them; but Oberlin's notions of education were much too comprehensive for their understandings. He found them speaking a rude *patois*, which as effectually separated them from communication with the rest of mankind as their utter want of roads; the husbandmen were destitute of the commonest implements, and had no means of procuring them; they had no knowledge of agriculture beyond the routine practices of their forefathers; they were ground down and irritated by a hateful feudal service. He devoted himself to the correction of these evils, at the same time that he labored in his spiritual vocation. The people at first did not comprehend his plans or appreciate his motives. Ignorance is always suspicious. They resolved, with the dogged pertinacity with which the uneducated of all ranks cling to the rubbish of old customs, not to submit to innovation. The peasants agreed on one occasion to waylay and beat him, and on another to duck him in a cistern. He boldly confronted them, and subdued their hearts by his courageous mildness. But he did more; he gave up exhorting the people to pursue their real interests; he practically showed them the vast benefits which competent knowledge and well-directed industry would procure for them. Within a few miles of this isolated district was Strasbourg, abounding in wealth and knowledge and all the refinements of civilization. He determined to open a regular communication between the Ban de la Roche and that city; to find there a market for the produce of his own district, and to bring thence in exchange new comforts and new means of

improvement. He assembled the people, explained his objects, and proposed that they should blast the rocks to make a wall, a mile and a half in length, to support a road by the side of the river, over which a bridge must also be made. The peasants one and all declared the thing was impossible; and every one excused himself from engaging in such an unreasonable scheme. Oberlin exhorted them, reasoned with them, appealed to them as husbands and fathers—but in vain. He at last threw a pickaxe upon his shoulder, and went to work himself, assisted by a trusty servant. He had soon the support of fellow-laborers. He regarded not the thorns by which his hands were torn, nor the loose stones which fell from the rocks and bruised them. His heart was in the work, and no difficulty could stop him. He devoted his own little property to the undertaking; he raised subscriptions amongst his old friends; tools were brought for all who were willing to use them. On the Sunday the good pastor labored in his calling as a teacher of sacred truths; but on the Monday he rose with the sun to his work of practical benevolence, and, marching at the head of two hundred of his flock, went with renewed vigor to his conquest over the natural obstacles to the civilization of the district. In three years the road was finished, the bridge was built, and the communication with Strasbourg was established. The ordinary results of intercourse between a poor and a wealthy, a rude and an intelligent community, were soon felt. The people of the Ban de la Roche obtained tools, and Oberlin taught their young men the necessary of learning other trades besides that of cultivating the earth. He apprenticed the boys to carpenters, marons, glaziers, blacksmiths, and cartwrights at Strasbourg. In a few years these arts, which were wholly unknown to the district, began to flourish. The tools were kept in good order, wheel-carriages became common, the wretched cabins were converted into snug cottages; the people felt the value of these great changes, and they began to regard their pastor with unbounded reverence. (To be continued.)

IGNORANCE AND CRIME.

Report of the Rev. John Clay, chaplain to the House of Correction at Preston, Lancashire, presented to the visiting justices at the October sessions, 1838, relative to the intellectual and moral condition of 1129 persons committed to that prison for various offences during the year.

The following table shows the amount of ignorance in the 1129 individuals committed for various offences, during the year, and the connexion subsisting between that and the causes which have led to their offences.

Degrees of education as related to causes of offence.

DEGREES OF EDUCATION.	CAUSES OF OFFENCE.									
	Drinking.	Uncertain.	Miseries and bad company.	Temptation.	Want.	Confirmed bad habits.	Weak intellect.	Complacency of workmen.	Total.	
1. Unable to read	130	215	9	5	50	72	7	8	554	
2. Barely capable of reading	57	92	12	4	24	32	1		222	
3. Can read the Testament	46	61	5	2	19	21		1	155	
4. Can read fluently	14	14	1	1	3	4			36	
5. Can read well and write a little	71	50	6	3	17	5			122	
6. Can read and write well	4	3		1					8	
Total	331	435	73	16	122	134	8	10	1129	

If we consider the educated criminals as represented by the amount of those who are able to 'read and write well,' the proportion is remarkably small; and the inference surely must be, that education prevents or restrains crime, either by the operation of those good and religious principles which it should be its great object to communicate; or, at the least, by giving a taste and capacity for pursuits incompatible with the low and debasing propensities which open the door to crime for the ignorant and sensual. On the other hand it is evident that the greatest absolute amount of crime is the result of ignorance and drinking combined. It is also, I think, specially worthy of observation, that as the scale of instruction rises, intoxication begins to exhibit itself as a gradually increasing cause of crime, until, with the education, it appears paramount over every other which can be distinctly ascertained. This truth I have thought it worth while to illustrate statistically in a table, which shows the proportion intoxication as a cause of crime, bears to all others made known by the criminals statements, &c. It must be premised, that the column of the preceding table marked 'uncertain,' is rejected from the calculation.

tion; though it should be borne in mind, that a great proportion of those uncertain causes is referrible to habitual drinking, the culprit, however, not being under its influence when his offence was actually committed.

The last, and probably the most important, table which I have to submit, is the following, which manifests the amount of ignorance, *as to religion*, in the 1129 unfortunate persons already spoken of:—

516 prisoners were quite ignorant of the simplest truths.

995 prisoners were capable of repeating the Lord's Prayer.

37 prisoners were occasionally readers of the Bible.

I was familiar with the Holy Scriptures, and conversant with the principles of religion.

Among the 516 persons entirely ignorant, 125 were incapable of repeating the Lord's Prayer.

This last table corresponds in its general features with that of last year; and I can add little to the observations which I then made upon the subject of ignorance in religion, unless it be to state that very few of the whole 1129 persons, probably not more than twenty or thirty, had habitually attended any place of divine worship. This estimate will be undisputed by all those who have observed the almost general desertion of the house of God by that portion of the working population which consists of males in the prime of life; and I think that if the subject were investigated, it would appear that this desertion is in the ratio of the density of the population. Village congregations would be found least obnoxious to this remark, and those of large towns most so.

For the Journal.

THE HOUSE I LIVE IN. No. 4.

By Dr. Wm. A. Alcott.

ITS INTERNAL ARRANGEMENT.

If you examine the various apartments of dwellings—say in one of our cities, as Hartford—although you may find a general resemblance, so far as structure is concerned, yet it is seldom, very seldom indeed, that you find precisely the same appearance as regards the furniture and its arrangement. Indeed, I hazard nothing in saying, that if you go through the whole city—through a city as large as New York or even London—you will find no two which have exactly the same appearance. Not only is it true that you will not find all the rooms in any building, corresponding with all the rooms of any other building, but it is even true that you will find *no* room any where, that corresponds exactly, in furniture and every thing else, with any *other* room. There will be more or fewer windows or doors, or they will be of a plainer or costlier construction. There will be more or fewer panes of glass in the windows, or the windows or panes will be of larger or smaller size. There will be more or fewer chairs, or tables, or beds, or glasses. In short, there is hardly any end to the variety, in on way or another.

But it is not so with the apartments of the house the soul lives in. Except in size, *all* the apartments in any healthy human body, resemble all those of every other human body. If you were to examine them with the most powerful microscope, you would find it difficult, if not impossible, to discover the slightest difference.

Are there, then, really separate apartments in the human body? some of my readers will perhaps, by this time, be disposed to inquire. And do these apartments contain furniture, like the apartments of our dwellings?

Yes, there are numerous apartments in the human body. Or if you do not like the word apartment, you may call them cavities. Some of them are larger, some smaller. Some are of sufficient capacity to hold a quart or more; some will scarcely hold a tea-spoon full; and, in truth, some not so much as that.

Among these cavities are some of those parts of the body—internal organs they truly are—which I have partly described in my former numbers: the lungs and the stomach. I have already told you something about the size of these two cavities. The first will hold a gallon or more; the latter about two or three pints—I mean in an adult of the usual health and size. I have also told you that the size of both these may be greater or less, according to our education and management.

There are also apartments in the brain. These are called

ventricles, and are of considerable size. The bladder is another large apartment. The rest of the apartments are smaller; but, as I have already intimated, they are exceedingly numerous. Some contain one thing, some another.

Perhaps I ought, before now, to have observed, that though I have spoken of these parts of the human system as being *cavities*, there is, in strictness of language, scarcely a cavity to be found in the human body. Do I seem to be giving forth enigmas or puzzles? I will explain my meaning. When the air is all out of the lungs—if indeed it could all be expelled from them—they contract or collapse, so that the sides of the places in them, which before were hollow, come together. An empty bag, or purse, is a cavity, you know; yet when it is empty, its sides fall together, so that there is really no cavity in it. So it is with the lungs, or so it would be, if the air was all out of them; they would collapse—that is, their sides would fall together at once. So it is, too, with the stomach, and so with the bladder and the ventricles of the brain. When there is no food in the stomach, its sides come into contact, so that no cavity really exists; and so it is, also, when there is no fluid in the bladder, or in the ventricles of the brain.

I am the more particular to mention this about cavities, because many young students of anatomy and physiology, imbibe the erroneous idea that the stomach, for example, when empty, forms a large hollow place in the human body, as large as a quart measure, or larger. The truth is, that it dilates to receive food and drink, and shrinks in proportion as it is empty.

The only permanent cavities, wholly within the human body, are some very small ones in the bones. The mouth is indeed a cavity, and there are cavities in the ears, but they are connected with the open air, and can hardly be regarded as wholly within the body. Nearly the same remark might be applied to the top of the windpipe—the large passage from the mouth and nose to the lungs; though this, like the lungs, is probably always or almost always filled with air.

The largest of these cavities in the bones, is the cavity in the cheek bones, almost directly below the outer angle of the eye, and above the first double teeth. Each of these would hold, in an adult, about half an ounce of fluid, or something more than a large table spoon full.

I have spoken as if the cavities I have described—the lungs, the stomach, the ventricles of the brain, the bladder, and the cavities of the cheek bones—were the largest in the human body; and they are usually considered as such. There is one cavity, however,—at least, I shall regard it as a cavity—in the human system, which is about as large as all the others I have mentioned, put together. It will hold, as it is generally thought, about three gallons.

It is a cavity, I say, and yet it is always full. It consists of a larger central hollow, and a great number of smaller hollows or tubes connected with it. It is, in one word, the circulatory system that I mean;—the heart, arteries and veins. Perhaps I cannot better describe this circulatory system, than by doing it in the language of my little book, called the "House I live in;" from which, however, I have made a few variations.

"This is a larger apartment," I there say, "than many would at first suppose. It must, of course, be large, to contain, as it does, twelve or fifteen quarts of blood. It is like the hollow channels of two great underground rivers, formed by the union of ten thousand larger or smaller—but most of them very small—streams, running side by side with each other, but never intermingling their contents. As they have no communication with each other in their course, so they have no outlet,—at least, none of any considerable size.

You may first think of all these streams, as if they were filled with blood; and afterward, as if they were emptied of their blood, and were hollow. In the latter case, if a quantity of liquid, such as water or melted wax, or even blood, were thrown into the cavities of the heart by means of a syringe, and if considerable effort were made, the liquid thrown in would soon run into all the large and small branches of this hollow river, channel or apartment, and entirely fill it; and the amount of fluid it would contain, would be, in an adult, about three or four gallons. Or to make it perfectly plain to all, it would be equal to a common sized pail full.

"Thus you see, that though the apartment of the circulation is strangely irregular in its shape, it is, nevertheless, a very spacious apartment; almost if not quite equal to the whole

cavity of the chest, in which the lungs and heart are placed, and not much inferior, in point of size, to the cavity below it, or that of the abdomen.

"But I must tell you here—for I shall now be able to make myself intelligible—something more about that part of the circulatory system which consists of the heart itself, or of what might be called the little sea or lake into which all these subterranean rivers constantly pour their various crimson floods.

"The heart really has four cavities in it, two on its right side, and two on its left. The blood, after it has been sent out into all parts of the body, through the arteries, returns to the first or upper part of the right side, and then passes through into the right ventricle. As soon as this ventricle is full, it contracts, and presses its contents, the blood, into a great artery, called the pulmonary artery, which carries it to all parts of the lungs, whence it comes back into the left side of the heart, first into the left auricle, and next into the left ventricle. From the latter it is pressed, when the heart contracts, into the great artery, or aorta, and sent all over the body.

"These four small cavities, or chambers, taken together, hold, in an adult, about two or three ounces of blood, or something more than half a gill. The length of an adult heart, measured on the outside, is about five inches. Or we may say, in general terms, that it is about the size of a man's fist."

Now this apartment—the great cavity of the circulation—is, as I have already intimated, almost exactly the same in shape and structure, in every human being; and a description of one will, therefore, be a description of all.

The use of this great cavity, or rather of the streams of blood it contains, is to carry nourishment and infuse life into every part of the body. When the food has been made into chyme, the chyme into chyle, and the chyle (by means of the lungs) into blood, this blood is sent out from the heart to all parts of the system with very great rapidity.

The heart, by contracting, first presses it into a great pipe called the aorta. This runs upward a little way towards the neck, and then turns backward and goes along downward, near the back-bone, towards the lower extremities. Not, however, till it has given off branches to each arm and to the neck and head. When it gets down almost to the bottom of the trunk of the human body, it parts into two great divisions, one of which goes to each of the lower limbs. These branches which part off to the head, arms and legs, soon subdivide, and keep subdividing till they are so very small that they can hardly be seen with the naked eye. In their manner of branching off, they resemble the limbs of a tree. There is this difference, however, in structure, between them and the trunk and limbs of a tree; that the latter are not hollow tubes, while the former are. The trunk and limbs of a tree indeed contain a fluid; but it is only in small vessels which run slowly along from the roots to the extremities, or in the contrary direction.

The number of considerable branches of the aorta, or great artery which carries the blood out from the heart, is sometimes said to be about one thousand. But it seems to me next to impossible to say how many there really are in the whole, any more than we can tell how many principal branches there are to a large tree, with a bushy top; for in both cases it is difficult to say where the important arteries end, or the unimportant ones begin. All of them are important, for they all carry blood.

The color of the main artery is whitish; and when it is examined in the dead body, is usually found empty. On this account, the ancients, before they knew much about the circulation of the blood, supposed it contained air; and this gave rise to the name *aorta*. It is now known, however, that it does contain blood; and that in the living person it is always full of it. It is empty in the dead person, because it has run out into the smaller vessels, or elsewhere.

You can easily perceive that your heart is in motion, by laying your hand on the left side of your breast, rather low down. You will find it to beat some seventy, eighty, or ninety times in a minute. In a full grown man, it sometimes beats little more than sixty times in a minute, or one in a second. This beating, I say, would tell you that there is motion; and so would the beating which you can feel at your wrist, and in many other parts of your body, and which always corresponds, both in force and frequency, with the beating of the heart. But it would not tell you what sort of motion it is.

The ancients, too, knew there was motion of the blood, but they did not understand the nature of the motion. Some of them supposed the blood moved backwards and forwards in its vessels, not unlike the ebbing and flowing of the tide. But it has at length been found out that it goes out as I have already said in the great aorta, till it comes to the extremities of the smallest of its branches, when it finds its way into the thousands of little veins, which begin just where the arteries end; and emptying themselves into those which are larger, at length find their way back to the heart.

These veins rise all over the system, and like the small streams that rise among the mountains, and by uniting form large rivers, they continue to empty themselves into larger ones, till they reach the heart, which they enter by two principal streams or large veins. In short, the whole mass of veins,—the venous system, as it is called—in their rise, progress and destination, exactly resemble two rivers emptying themselves very near together. The arterial system, on the contrary, resembles *one* stream with its innumerable branches, with this difference from the venous system—that its contents run *up stream*, as it were; that is, go from the heart into an almost infinite number of tributary branches; whereas the contents of the veins run *down hill*, in what seems to be the natural course.

At every beat of the heart, all the blood, in the left ventricle is pressed out into the great aorta. How much there is in an adult heart, I do not exactly know, but I believe about two ounces. This fills up some six or eight inches of that part of the aorta which is nearest the heart, and pushes the blood which was in it before still further on; and the latter pushes the mass before it still farther. Thus at each successive beat of the heart, the blood is pushed on till it reaches the farthest parts of the system and enters the veins.

I have spoken as if the blood was propelled through the system solely by the force of the heart. But it is thought by many anatomists, and not without reason, that the small arteries suck the blood, as it were, from the heart and thus greatly aid the latter in the performance of its work! In fact some suppose that the small arteries do the greater part of the work. The probability is that the heart does a large share of the work, and the arteries do the rest. How much the heart does, i. e. with how much force it pushes the blood onward, has been a matter of much dispute. Some have supposed the power of its contractions to be equal only to a few pounds, while others have supposed it to be 150,000 or 180,000! The more common belief now is that it has a force of not more than thirty pounds.

Be this as it may, however, the whole mass of blood, or a quantity equal to the whole mass, i. e. some twenty-five or thirty pounds, passes through the heart every three or four minutes. What a wonder this is! This stream which rushes through the heart of a whale eighty or one hundred feet in length is sufficient in quantity and force to turn a considerable mill; and the force of the stream which rushes through the human heart would, in its effects, probably surprise us.

I have said that the great aorta, when it first leaves the heart, is white and not fleshy. But its branches are more or less fleshy—that is, have muscular fibres in their sides—and the smaller they become the more fleshy they are. They are exceedingly numerous, and so are the veins. Every one knows that we cannot prick the skin any where with the finest needle without starting the blood. But this shows that we have hit an artery or a vein, and probably several of them.

Some parts of the human system abound more in blood-vessels and blood than others, but all, except the nails and the remote parts of the hair, contain more or less of it. Even the bones have blood in them, especially those of young people. There is less blood in the brain than in almost any other vital part. The liver is exceedingly full of it, and so are the muscular parts, or lean flesh, and the skin. The fat, again, contains very little, and very fatty parts, like the brain, almost none. But I have said enough on the subject for once; I may possibly resume it hereafter.

For the Journal.

TEXT BOOKS.

Within the last few years much labor and talent have been employed in furnishing text-books, adapted to the courses of

instruction given in our elementary schools. Three classes of minds have come into the field of labor.

1st. The practical teachers, who felt the deficiency of the existing works of elementary instruction, and supposed that the deficiency might be easily supplied.

2nd. The profound scholar, who looks upon the world through his study windows and imagines it as easy to operate on the minds of youth and bring them in harmonious action, as it is to conjugate a verb or demonstrate a proposition in Euclid.

3rd. The money-making author, who writes by the line, or furnishes a given number of pages for a given compensation.

These classes embrace nearly all the competitors for fame, who have figured before the public as the authors of school-books, and perhaps neither class would be likely to possess all the requisites necessary to form the ladder up which the young mind is to ascend into the higher regions of knowledge.

Every school book should be a link in the chain of that branch of knowledge to which it relates. It should occupy a certain space, and occupy that space fully. The connection, therefore, which the subject treated of, has with all the kindred subjects to which it is related, must be seen by the author. All the subjects of knowledge are more or less intimately blended—like the spider's web they are woven into each other in a thousand ways, and he who would guide the mind along a single thread, must know how that thread is connected with all the others.

A text-book should also have a beginning, a middle, and an end. It should be a little system of itself. It is an attribute of the mind to be pleased with order. The little child loves to place his play things in a row and to arrange his marbles in a regular figure. This tendency of the mind should be seized upon as an element for its improvement.

As early as possible, the child should be taught to *arrange* his ideas. He should put them together—for they form a string of pearls. Hence, a text book should be connected in all its parts—it should also be simple. Every idea should be presented in its most elementary form, and its connection with others made apparent.

The style also, should be clear and perspicuous. The definitions should be expressed with great care.

In arithmetic where the greatest exactness should be observed, we often find the language loose and inaccurate. Something perhaps nearly as follows:

Q. What is the art called, that teaches us how to read, write, and express numbers by figures?

Ans. Numeration.

Again we often find the definition,

Numeration signifies *numbering*. It is divided into two parts *numeration* and *notation*. Notation is the art of writing down numbers, and numeration is the art of reading them after they are written down.

In the first definition, numeration is defined to be the art of *reading*, or *writing*, or expressing numbers by figures. Now the reading of figures is a distinct operation from that of writing them—as distinct indeed as the operations of reading and writing words.

In the second definition, numeration is defined to be the art of *numbering*. Then, it is said to be composed of two parts, *numeration* and *notation*. And finally we are informed that numeration is the art of reading figures. The last definition is correct.

Now, with such a variety of definitions how is a child to get a clear idea of the meaning of the author. These examples are perhaps pretty fair specimens of the negligence with which books for children are prepared. Indeed, it is argued by some that, perfect accuracy in the language is not necessary, since the child could not appreciate it—but want of accuracy always gives a confused impression. It is like smoke which obscures the clear light.

There are some who suppose that a book for a child must be made *easy*. It must be simple. The very idea must first be stuffed into the mind and then the child must be asked what it means. The word must be put into his mouth, and half pronounced, and the little urchin only required to articulate the last syllable. More than this would tire him.

This, it seems to the writer, is all wrong. The thought to be impressed should be clearly and distinctly presented, and the mind should then be permitted to grapple with it, in its own

way. I would select the provision and divide it into pieces corresponding to the age of the child, and would then leave him to use the knife and fork in his own way.

The first developments of the mind should be made, as nearly as possible, to correspond to the manner in which the mind is subsequently to be brought into successful action. When you teach a child to walk, you train him to stand erect, that he may at once attain the position of manhood. And when his mind is first called into action, it is as important to its right direction and full development, that it be moved in the right way, as it is in communicating motion to a piece of complicated machinery to apply the moving force to the right spring or wheel.

Hence, the great importance of suitable text-books. These give to the mind its first impressions—its early intellectual habits. If these impressions are obscure, the bud will open sluggishly, or perhaps there will not be strength enough to call it into life.

If the first habits of thought are loose and slovenly, and the first ideas are indistinct or confused, accuracy and clearness will afterwards be attained with difficulty. The intellectual texture becomes weak—the warp, indeed, is imperfect and the fabric will generally be worthless.

RELATION OF TEACHER AND PUPIL.

Another and truly important means of promoting the usefulness of common schools is the *diffusion of a correct knowledge and sense of the relations of teacher and pupil*. From the want of just and steady principles respecting these relations, the benefit of schools is often much abridged. Difficulties not unfrequently arise in school districts, and in schools themselves, from a want of definite views on the part of parents and teachers respecting the legal rights, powers and duties of the latter. Knowledge of the extent and limitation of his authority is hid from his eyes. Access to it is exceedingly difficult. It is not open to him in the statute book, to which his approach would be comparatively easy. It lies in fragments scattered up and down in a wilderness of judicial decisions spread through different States; for, though the decisions of courts in other States are not of themselves valid here, there is a wise respect paid to them in our own courts, and a cautious hesitation to come into conflict with them. They have the authority of revered wisdom, if not of positive law. The committee, too, are sometimes embarrassed in the discharge of their duty. They find it extremely difficult to ascertain the limits of either the teacher's authority or their own. They cannot always tell whether they are over or within the line of their duty when the intervention of their authority is called for by the earnest complaint of parents and by the insubordination of individual or confederate scholars. The inconvenience of this vagueness is more extensively felt than complained of. Perhaps the authority of the teachers is too general in its nature to be confined within bounds that shall exactly comprehend the various contingencies that may happen. If your Committee should venture to say that the occasion for the use of authority must determine its limits, there might still be a wide diversity of opinion as to what should constitute an occasion for its use; and if all should agree as to the call for its exercise, they might differ widely as to the measure and the mode of it. As there is great need of discretion in the teacher, there is also much need that discretion be allowed to him. His is an approximation to parental government, and so far as the one approaches the other, so far should a similar discretion be conceded. Regarding then the teacher as, to a considerable extent and for the time being, in the place of the parent, we think that, as in one case, so in the other, the law will not interfere with the exercise of authority, except where the bounds of reason are clearly transgressed, and the exercise of it works palpable injury to the subject of it, and tends thereby to make inroads on the social welfare. In doubtful cases, public justice will lean to the teacher rather than the pupil, as it presumes the discretion of the parent till the proof plainly forbids such presumption. Unless we widely err, the due authority of teachers has, in many instances, been gradually frittered away, and the art of coaxing has been required instead of discreet government. In schools of from forty to an hundred scholars, where the number is nearly equalled by the variety, a morbid sentiment relies for subordination on the

power of persuasion alone. Those who are governed no where else, and no where else persuaded, are expected to be held under a salutary restraint by the gentle sway of inviting motives. If we may suppose cases where this lenient power is strong enough to curb the wayward and subdue the refractory, we think it must be in cases where rare skill is applied to select specimens of human nature. We urge nothing against the power of persuasion within its reasonable limits, and we could wish that these limits were much wider than they are, as they doubtless would be with improved domestic education. Early and steady respect to authority at home, prepares the way for easy government in school, and whilst it is a perpetual blessing to the child, it is a present comfort to the parent and a service done to the public. Not till an even handed authority creates the power of persuasion at home, may we expect its triumph abroad. Whatever value then we put upon its gentle influence, we think that, at least in schools it is not good for it to be alone. Law, not a name, but a power, must have a known existence, and if this knowledge cannot be communicated by its letter, it should be acquired by a sense of its wholesome penalties. There are those so headstrong from long indulgence and from their habits of early domination, that to bring them to their duty in school and to keep them from marring their own and others' good, by the gentle power of motives, would be as unreasonable an expectation as that of subduing the wild colt of the prairie without a thong or bridle. To say that such should at once be turned out of school, is to say that they shall not have the very benefit which all need, and they more than others, the benefit of a well governed school, to whose government their submission might be a salutary novelty. To expel a pupil from school should be done only by a cautious decision and as an ultimate resort. To inflict upon him this disgrace and to deprive him of the advantages of education is, in some sense, to punish the community. Such a result may sometimes be unavoidable, but in most cases it may be shunned by the prevalence of a quick and strong sense, within the District, of the importance of a firm and well sustained government in the school, and by leaving mainly to the discretion of him, who is held responsible for the success of the school he teaches, to find where persuasion can, and coercion must, do its work.

Your committee are unwilling to dismiss this part of their report, without pressing further on your consideration the importance of a correct general sentiment respecting schools both public and private and of every grade. We think that much of the inefficiency of schools is occasioned by an unintentional and indirect interference of parents with the appropriate authority and influence of the teacher. It is an interference that works no less effectually because its operation is indirect and unsuspected. We refer to a home-bred influence that springs up by the fireside and around the table. It drops from the parent's lips on the heart of his child to be carried into the gatherings of children in the neighborhood, and thence with accumulated power into the school, there to injure if not to frustrate the best endeavors of otherwise competent and useful teachers. It takes the place of a salutary influence that might easily be exerted by the judicious and decided co-operation of parents while their children are under the domestic roof. The indulgence of parental fondness humors the waywardness of the child, lends a willing and partial ear to the child's unfounded complaint against the teacher, entertains unjust suspicions of his intellectual attainments and discretion in government. Instead of placing the full weight of parental authority in the hands of the teacher, it takes away from those hands much of the authority which the deliberate and settled wisdom of the State has placed in them. We would therefore respectfully, but with an earnest voice, call upon parents, by their tender and sacred regard to the best interests of their children, and by their enlightened respect to the general good, to refrain carefully from weakening the government and diminishing the usefulness of the teacher by hasty or ill-founded distrust of his competency or faithfulness, and to consider that, in the regulations of his school and in his judgment of the character and conduct, the merit or demerit of the scholar while under his eye, he has advantages for discernment which can be possessed by no one else, and to bear in mind that, as a general fact, the teacher feels his responsibility more deeply and constantly than others feel it for him, and that his reputation and disposition stimulate him to

put forth his best exertions for the useful advancement of the school. Let them not forget that, while the children are in school, parental authority is passed away into other hands, and that neither the parent nor the child should entertain the thought that any remnant of domestic power may infringe on the supremacy of the teacher whilst standing where the public will has placed him.

TEACHERS AND PARENTS

Must co-operate to secure the regular and punctual attendance of Scholars.

Besides securing the affections of his pupils and making the school room a place of delight to them, the teacher can do much in another way to secure regularity and punctuality, in their attendance at school. An immense point is gained by enlisting the desires of the children in favor of attendance. If the school, for any reason, is odious or even unattractive to them, they will not only avail themselves of every permission to stay away, but they will fabricate a thousand excuses for deserting it. They will have some work to do, on one day; they will desire to make or receive a visit, on another; they will lose a book on a third, and all parts of their bodies will take turns in aching, as an excuse for abandoning the school. Not so, when the children love the school;—the work will be done in the morning or evening, though they may have to rise at an hour earlier or sit up an hour later to accomplish it; the visits will be postponed or shortened, and the aches will be suppressed or forgotten. But if the desire of the children to attend is secured, still inconsiderate parents may interfere to disappoint it. This opens another field for the teacher's labor and skill. He must visit the parents and explain to them the untold and unspeakable mischiefs of absence and tardiness; how it wastes time, deadens exertion, interrupts classes, and baffles all attempts at system and uniformity of movement, in the school. In one of the old arithmetical books, we remember there was a question like this:—"If a frog be at the bottom of a well, thirty feet deep, and he hops up three feet every day, but falls back two feet every night, how long will it take him to get out?" Whether this was put into the arithmetic to explain the slow progress made by tardy and irregular scholars, we know not, but it is an apt illustration; for they, like the frog, will accomplish no more in twenty-eight days, than they might do in ten. Perhaps the parent of the delinquent children is a lawyer or a trader;—let the teacher ask him what would become of his clients or customers, should he absent himself from his office or store, every other day, or even for half the mornings or afternoons. Perhaps the parent is a miller or manufacturer;—let his attention be turned to the loss of permitting his head of water to run off while his wheels are standing motionless, just as the term of the school is wasting away, while his children are deriving no benefit from it. Perhaps he is a blacksmith; let the teacher ask him, how long it would take to weld two pieces of iron together, if as soon as they became about half hot enough for the union, he were to pull them out and cool them, again and again and again. Yet this is just what they do to their children, for as soon as their minds get a little warmth and engagedness in their studies, they keep them home until they get cold again. In this way, let the teacher convince, or coax, or shame every parent, who fails to act like a parent, into the conduct of a parent.

For the Journal.

INTEREST IN STUDIES AND RECITATIONS.

When a teacher enters a school, the necessity of classification is so apparent, that he usually devotes half a day or more to this business. When his pupils are all arranged in classes for reading, Geography, Arithmetic and other branches, he feels that a work is completed. And so it is. He will not be obliged to perform that task again for months. He rejoices that he can now attend to the recitations of his classes.

A week has passed—and the scholars have all come in, many with new books, and all with smiling faces, to attend school at least for several weeks. The teacher is happy.—His classes recite well. He has asked every question in the text book in each lesson, and all the members can answer it. One day he calls on four bright boys to recite a lesson in Ge-

ography. Vermont is the lesson. The class have been through Maine and New Hampshire. There is a failure in this recitation. One boy does not remember the population of the state. Another thinks Bennington is the capital. A third says Vermont became a member of the Union in 1820. The teacher is sad at the decline of interest apparent in the boys, and gives them the lesson to commit *again*, and calls on another class to recite. Here he finds the same evidence that the scholars have been unfaithful in studying the Lessons.—In Arithmetic he finds them no better prepared, after school has kept two or three weeks. In vain the teacher looks for the cause in his own unfaithfulness. He has toiled hard to promote the advancement of the school. The fact is, he has labored too hard, but in a wrong way. Because the classes do not commit their lessons, he is discouraged, and teaching becomes unpleasant. If he continues through the season in the school, he perhaps never attempts again.

Another teacher of equal abilities, commences a school.—After classifying the scholars and appointing their lessons, he dismisses them early and tells them he feels happy that he shall be obliged to detain them from their lessons no longer, and that they will please to commit the lessons given, perfectly, as he shall be able to tell them many things of interest not found in their text books. The members all disperse, with the feeling that they shall be happy to recite *perfectly*, that their teacher may have time to tell them what was promised. On the next morning, the teacher is glad to find that almost every scholar is present at the time appointed for commencing school. When the hour arrives for reciting Geography he tells the class that this world is a star! There is something pleasing to the mind of a child, in the thought, as it first enters his mind, that he lives on a star. He then tells them that the earth is a large moon as it appears to an observer stationed at our moon, and is not seen at all at a distance beyond the solar system. He next explains the solar system, in as simple a manner as possible, and stops in the midst of his remarks and asks the questions of the lesson. After giving them a new lesson and dismissing them, he calls on a class in Arithmetic to recite. They are just beginning Addition, and it looks dry and hard to them. They have studied the lesson given them yesterday but little. Their teacher asks the children to make a square on their slates—then another—a circle—then another—a triangle—then a second—and if they do not draw them all exact, he tells them, as is true, that they have done well—for they have *tried* to do well. He requests them to count the figures. They tell the number in a moment. This he says is addition. How many play things would a boy have, if he had two tops, four hoops and a kite? They immediately answer right. He then gives them a short, easy sum in figures, showing them how to add. When they complete the work, he says, we have been detained on our circles and kites so long, that we have not got through our lesson. We will take four sums in addition, for our next recitation; and if we get the lesson well, we shall have time to make some more figures on the slate and count them. The class go to their seats not only happy, but having learned something—and besides, they begin to like reciting. You have their interest excited and you can keep it so, as long as you will continue to make a like effort.

Perhaps the next time the class in Geography recites, you give a short history of the science of Geography. At another time, you tell the object of studying this branch in school.—At another, state the connexion Geography has with Astronomy, Philosophy and History. In some such way, a teacher can always succeed in interesting a class and instructing them. When the Arithmetic class is called to recite again, the teacher tells them that when they learn Addition and Subtraction, they will have learned all the fundamental rules of Arithmetic—that Multiplication and Division are only shortened processes of these rules, and that all the sums in the book will be done by these four rules. When called again to recite, he relates some anecdotes of men who have become great mathematicians,—as Zerah Colburn and Newton, and La Place. On another occasion, he tells them the effect on the mind of studying mathematics,—how it strengthens and expands its powers—capacitates for other pursuits—and makes the child a man.

He is always sure to tell them much that they never knew and that is not found in their lessons. Every author supposes

that teachers will take this course. A book of two or three hundred pages cannot contain all a child should know of Geography or History. It contains enough, however, for a text book, and a thorough knowledge of all found there, should be required. But when classes are examined on preceding lessons, weekly or monthly, as the case may be, they should be questioned on what the teacher has told them; and they will be sure to answer such questions correctly and without hesitation.

The above are only for illustration. The idea I wish to convey is this. If a teacher wishes to have good recitations, let him plan to *entertain* every class in his school, by stating some interesting facts, or requesting the pupil to do something that will not seem difficult, or conversing with them on some topic suggested by the lesson, or in any way that may be deemed best. It will require labor and thought. But labor and thought are the business of teachers. Every one who teaches, must read much on the sciences his scholars pursue. Let him relate the facts that come under his notice to his classes, and thereby show *his* interest in their studies, and he will find himself abundantly rewarded, by the happiness and industry thus promoted in his school. He does not merely have good recitations; but good order and good feeling.—When scholars are interested in their lessons, they are studious of course, and do not require watching, which is apt to have a bad influence on their morals. Just get scholars *interested* in their recitations, and you have a studious, obedient, happy school. This indeed is one of the great secrets of sure success, and promotes more than almost any thing else, the good morals of the pupils and the influence of the teacher over his school. These short conversations are like lectures to students in the Universities. They excite inquiry—afford change and variety to the mind—and thereby chase away the dull monotony that too often pervades a school. S.

READY AND APPPOSITE USE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

Language is to be learned, where it is used; as skill in handling the implements of an art, is acquired by practising with them upon their appropriate objects. It is to be learned by conversation, and by the daily reading of such books, as, with the aid of free questioning on the part of the pupil, and full explanations on that of the teacher, can be thoroughly mastered. The ideas of the learner are to be brought out and set, objectively, before his own eyes, like a picture. Any error can then be pointed out. The boundary line can be traced, between his knowledge and his ignorance. A pupil may recite a lesson with literal correctness, respecting the boundaries of the different States in the Union; and it may be impossible for the teacher to determine, whether this is done by a mental reference to divisional lines and adjacent territory, or whether it is done by remembering the words, as they stand in the geography. But if the pupil can delineate a correct map of the United States, on a black-board, it is then certain, that he has the prototype of it in his mind. So if the pupil applied language to something, known to both parties, the teacher can then perceive, *whether the language is adjusted to the thing*; and, if it is not, he can ascertain whether the error arises from a misconception of the thing, or from an unskilful use of words in describing it. Oral instruction, therefore, to some extent, respecting known objects and such as can be graphically described, should precede reading; and should accompany it ever afterwards, though, perhaps, with diminishing frequency. Early practice, in noting the real distinctions in the qualities of sensible substances, will give accuracy to language; and when the child passes from present and sensible objects to unseen and mental ones, a previously acquired accuracy of language will impart accuracy to the new ideas. Hence, too, the scenes of the first reading lessons should be laid in the household, the play-ground, among the occupations of men, and the surrounding objects of nature, so that the child's notions can be rectified at every step in the progress. This rectification will be impossible, if the notions of the pupil can be brought to no common and intelligible standard. We must believe, too, that the Creator of the human mind, and of the material world in which it is placed, established a harmony and correspondence between them; so that the objects of nature are pre-adapted to the development of the intellect, as the

distempers, positions, and manners of the family are to develop the moral powers. The objects of natural history—descriptions of beasts, birds, fishes, insects, trees, flowers, and unorganized substances, should form the subjects of the earliest intellectual lessons. A knowledge of these facts lays the foundation for a knowledge of the principles or sciences which respectively grow out of them. We are physically connected with earth, air, water, light; we are dependent, for health and comfort, upon a knowledge of their properties and uses, and many of the vastest structures of the intellect are reared upon these foundations. Lineally related to these is the whole family of the useful arts. These classes of subjects are not only best calculated to foster the early growth of the perceptive, inventive, and reasoning powers; but the language appropriate to them excludes vagueness and ambiguity, and compels every mistake to betray itself. Voyages and travels, also, accompanied, as they always should be, with geography, present definite materials, both for thought and expression. Just as early as a habit of exactness is formed in using words to express things, all the subjects of consciousness may be successively brought within the domain of instruction. The ideal world can then be entered, as it were, with a lamp in the hand, and all its wonders portrayed. Affection, justice, veracity, impartiality, self-sacrifice, love to man and love to God—all carried out into action—can be illustrated by examples, after the learner has acquired a medium, through which he can see all the circumstances, which make deeds magnanimous, heroic, god-like. Here the biography of great and good men belongs. This is a department of literature, equally vivifying to the intellect and the morals; bestowing useful knowledge and inspiring noble sentiments. And much of the language appropriate to it almost belongs to another dialect; fervid, electric, radiant. At the earliest practicable period, let composition or translation be commenced. By composition I do not mean an essay "On Friendship," or "On Honor;" nor that a young Miss of twelve years should write a homily "On the duties of a Queen," or a lad, impatient of his nonage, "On the shortness of human life;" but that the learner should apply, on familiar subjects, the language he thinks best, to the ideas and emotions he perceives clearest and feels strongest, *to see how well he can make them fit each other*—first in sentences, or short paragraphs, then in more extended productions. If the pupil's knowledge outruns his language—as is often the case with the most promising—then a more copious diction is to be sought; but if language overgrows ideas, it is to be reduced, though it be by knife and cautery.

It is only in this way—by reading or translating good authors, aided by oral instructions and by lexicographers, but, most of all, by early habit—that any one can acquire such easy mastery over the copiousness and flexibility of our mother tongue, as to body forth definitely, and at will, any thought or thing, or any combination of thoughts and things, found in the consciousness of men, or in the amplitude of nature;—in no other way can any one acquire that terseness and condensing force of expression, which is a constituent in the highest oratory, which clusters weightiest thoughts into briefest spaces, reminding without repeating, each sentence speeding straight onward to the end, while every salient epithet opens deep vistas to the right and left;—and, in this way alone, can any one ever learn the picture-words of that tongue, wherewith the poet repays nature fourfold for all her beauties, giving her back brighter landscapes, and clearer waters, and sweeter melodies, than any she had ever lent to him. By such processes alone, can one of the most wonderful gifts of God—the faculty of speech—be dutifully cultivated and enlarged.—*Mr. Mann's Second Report.*

For the Journal.

READING. NO. 2.

The next subject to be considered, is the *mode* in which an instructor is to make use of his own example in reading.

In the common way of attending to this branch in our schools, whenever the teacher takes his turn in reading a verse or paragraph as if he were one of the class, the custom has always been, for him to read so much at a time, that no one of his pupils can distinguish and discriminate in what point or particulars the example thus set him, is superior to his own reading, or indeed remember anything about the matter, except probably, that the general sound and impression was superior to that of his own attempts. Now of what advantage will this be to him, if he has already read as well as he can? Let

every teacher, therefore, adopt it as an invariable rule, never to read as much as a verse or a paragraph at a time, unless he explains previously to exhibiting his example, what point or points the scholars are to notice, remember and imitate in his manner. He should never read much at a time, unless it is necessary for the reasons immediately following. And if it is necessary to read several lines at once, he should so manage his own execution, even of a paragraph of considerable length, as to demonstrate to his pupils some one point, upon which all their power of attention is to be fixed, while he is setting their example. This will be sometimes an emphasis upon some single word, which requires to be uttered with more point, and made more prominent than any other in the portion read. Some word or group of words, respecting which it will be true, that if the word or group is enunciated with the proper inflexion and suitable force, the sense of the whole passage will be clear and striking. Take for an example the following verses of the second chapter of the Gospel of John.

Verse 12. "After this he went down to CAPERNAUM, he and his mother, and his brethren, and his disciples; and they continued there not many days."

Verse 15. "And when he had made a scourge of small cords, HE DROVE THEM ALL OUT OF THE TEMPLE, and the sheep and the oxen; and poured out the changers' money and overthrew the tables:"

Verse 16. "And said unto them that sold doves, TAKE THESE THINGS HENCE: make not my Father's house a house of merchandise."

Verse 18. "Then answered the Jews, and said unto him, What sign shewest thou unto us, seeing that thou doest these things?"

Verse 20. "Then said the Jews, FORTY AND SIX YEARS WAS THIS temple in building, and wilt thou rear it up in three days?"

Verse 21. "But he spake of the temple of his body."

Verse 22. "When therefore he was risen from the dead, his disciples REMEMBERED that he had said this unto them: and they believed the scripture and the word which Jesus had said."

Or if it is the wish of the instructor to inculcate a suitable variety in the modulation of the voice, independent of emphasis, articulation and pause, let him strongly and pointedly direct his scholars' attention to this one peculiarity in the example which he is about to set.

Sometimes the sense is suspended in a paragraph or verse for several lines, and there is a peculiar management of the voice necessary at the long pause where the suspending clause ends, and the sentence takes a turn towards the conclusion. Take for an instance, the following:

Acts 25: 23. "And on the morrow, when Agrippa was come, and Bernice, with great pomp, and was entered into the place of hearing, with the chief captains and principal men of the city, — at Festus's commandment, Paul was brought forth."

Again it may be necessary to read a passage of considerable length, in order to show the proper mode of managing an included parenthesis; as in the three first verses of the fourth chapter of the Gospel of John.

"When therefore the Lord knew how the Pharisees had heard that Jesus made and baptized more disciples than John, (though Jesus himself baptized not, but his disciples,) — he left Judea, and departed again into Galilee."

So in Acts 10: 36 and 37 we have an example which illustrates not only this principle, but all the others just mentioned.

"The word which God sent unto the children of Israel, preaching peace by Jesus Christ: (he is Lord of all:) — that word I say ye know, which was published throughout all Judea, and began from Galilee, after the baptism which John preached."

But let it be carefully remembered, that passages like those just quoted, are rather infrequent, and that consequently there is generally no necessity for reading so much at a time. The invariable rule, therefore, must be to read but very little at once. How little, will be best determined by the following direction, until the pupil is considerably advanced. Read merely a portion that contains not more than one emphatic word, remembering that the fewer emphatic words you use, provided you exhibit the general sense, the better will be the reading. Not unfrequently also, clauses must be read separately, that have no emphatic word, or none on which the emphasis is other than very slight. Take for an example the two first verses of the twenty-first chapter of Acts.

"And it came to pass, that after we had gotten from them, — and had launched, — we came with a straight course unto Coos, — and the day following unto Rhodes, — and from thence unto Patara: — and finding a ship sailing over unto Phœnicia, — we went aboard, and set forth."

Again take the first three verses of the third of John.

"There was a man of the Pharisees, — named Nicodemus, — a ruler of the Jews: — the same came to Jesus — by night, — and said unto him, — Rabbi, we know that thou art a teacher come from God; — for no man can do these miracles that thou doest, — except God be with him. — Jesus answered and said

unto him, — Verily, verily, I say unto thee, — *Except a man be born again, — he cannot see the kingdom of God.*"

"That which is born of the *flesh*, — is *flesh*; — and that which is born of the *Spirit*, — is *spirit*. — Marvel not that I said unto thee, Ye must be born again. — The *Wind* — bloweth where it listeth, — and thou hearest the sound thereof, — but canst not tell whence it cometh, and whither it goeth: — so — is every one that is born of the *Spirit*."

It may be well in this place, to mention for the benefit of instructors, the *principle*, in the philosophy of elocution upon which are founded not only this direction which has been just given, but the mode of reading, indicated in the above examples. It is this; *Never in reading impressively, give out at one impulse of the voice, more than one of the particular ideas, which go to make up the general one of the sentence.* In very forcible delivery, when it is exhibited in the open air or in very large rooms, the portions will often be still smaller, scarcely more being uttered at once, than principal words with the auxiliaries and particles that accompany them.

The rule just given, is most clearly illustrated by narrative passages. Take the following, which will illustrate also some of the previous principles.

Acts 3d. "Now Peter and John — went up together into the temple, — at the hour of prayer being the ninth hour."

"And a certain man — *lame from his mother's womb* — was carried — whom they laid *daily* — at the gate of the temple, which is called *beautiful* — to ask alms — of them that entered into the temple."

"Who — seeing Peter and John about to go into the temple, — asked an alms."

"And Peter — fastening his eyes upon him — with John — said — Look on us."

"And he gave heed unto them, — expecting to receive something of them."

"Then Peter said — *Silver and Gold have I none* — but such as I have — give I thee: — *In the name of Jesus Christ of Nazareth!* — rise up and walk."

"And he took him by the right hand — and lifted him up — and immediately his feet and ancle bones — *received strength!*"

"And he — *leaping up* — stood — and walked! — and entered with them into the temple! — walking — and leaping — and praising God."

"And all the people saw him — walking — and praising God."

"And they knew — that it was he which sat for alms at the beautiful gate of the temple — and they were filled with wonder and amazement, at that which had happened unto him."

"And as the lame man which was healed — held Peter and John — all the people ran together unto them — in the porch that is called Solomon's — *greatly wondering!*"

"And when Peter saw it — he answered unto the people — Ye men of Israel — why marvel ye at this — or why look ye so earnestly on us — as though by our own power or holiness — we had made this man to walk."

"The God of Abraham, and of Isaac, and of Jacob — the God of our Fathers — has glorified his son Jesus — whom ye delivered up — and denied him — in the presence of Pilate — when he was determined to let him go."

"But ye — denied the Holy One and the Just — and desired a murderer to be granted unto you;"

"And killed the Prince of life — whom God hath raised from the dead! — whereof we are witnesses."

"And his name — through faith in his name — hath made this man strong, whom ye see and know — yea the faith which is by him — hath given him this perfect soundness in the presence of you all."

The writer is aware that the mode of marking, which is applied to these examples, conveys but very imperfectly, an idea of the objects to be gained, by breaking up the verses into portions. But by no mode of marking, can any information be furnished, which shall compare in satisfactoriness, with that received by the ear from the living voice of a good reader. It is inconvenient to attempt to indicate the inflexions; but let a reader fix his mind earnestly on the meaning and connexion of the portions marked off, and enunciate each of them completely by itself, with a spirited endeavor to exhibit its just force and bearing, and he will go through the same process as the elocutionist, when he is studying out the proper mode of reading a passage, and pursuing those investigations, by which he forms his rules for instructing others. And indeed, unless precisely this sort of effort is made by a person endeavoring to improve his reading, no rules will be of any use to him. He will be utterly unable either to perceive their propriety, or to apply them in practice.

Finally, when the teacher reads for the benefit of his pupils, let him be exceedingly slow and careful. In proportion as their minds are immature or uncultivated, must be the syllabic slowness of his enunciation, the length of his pauses and the pointed particularity of

tone in which he dwells long on the emphatic words. These two last particulars will require the most care on his part, and be the most difficult at first for his scholars to imitate. They will all, as a matter of course, make the pauses between the ideas short, and hurry over, instead of dwelling upon, the emphatic words.

The writer will make a single remark with respect to the collateral benefit, attending the mode of instruction just described. It may be so managed as to have a very striking and gratifying effect in making both instructor and pupil enter with more liveliness and intelligence into the full meaning of whatever they read. They will read more understandingly for the very reason that they will actually understand better, and it will equally be the case, that they will form a habit of mind, by which they will always have a quicker perception and fuller comprehension of whatever they even cast their eyes on for their own information and pleasure, without any reference to reading or recitation.

N.

For the Journal.

BOOK-KEEPING IN COMMON SCHOOLS.

BY NICHOLAS HARRIS, A. M.

Every business transaction in which there has been a change of property, requires a distinct entry either on the day book, cash book, bill book, invoice book, or an account sales book; and, in some cases, the same entry should be made on two books. An individual may classify his business and record one portion of it on one, and another part on another of the books enumerated. The number of books, for original entry will consequently be determined by the nature and extent of the business which they record. In schools the teacher should for a time, confine his class to one book of original entry, and that a day book. On this may be recorded the purchases and sales of merchandise; acceptances, receipts, payments and discounts of bills; the shipments of goods, company accounts, &c. A long time will not elapse before the learners will discover an advantage to be derived from the use of a cash book, on which to enter all the receipts and payments of cash, a bill book on which to enumerate all bills, received and parted with, and so on, until they compass all the books of original entry which can be introduced into the most extended and complicated business. In addition to the books already named, are used in most well-regulated counting rooms the journal and ledger. When the Journal is one of a set of books, it should exhibit in brief the Drs. and Crs. of all the original entries. In such case the ledger would be made from the journal—otherwise from the original entries. Each business transaction not only requires at the time a distinct entry, but it subsequently affects two or more accounts in the ledger.

According to the principles of equilibrium, in posting a series of transactions in trade, the sum of the debit will at any time equal the sum of the credit entries.

In the construction of the journal, then, constant reference should be had to the arrangement of the ledger, and there should be as distinct a selection of Drs. and Crs. on the former as on the latter book. To journalize original entries then is in reality to post them, with the exception, that all of the same kind do not appear under their respective heads as in the ledger.

It will be obvious from the foregoing that to perform with facility and correctly the journalizing, learners must explore the theory of the ledger. They must know that the name of every person and thing which appears on the journal, must have an account opened under such title in the ledger; they should understand fully the design of each account, that is, what end is to be accomplished by its introduction.

For instance, we say that the cash account should show at any time the amount of cash on hand. In order to this, we post all cash received on the Dr. and all cash expended on the Cr. side of the cash account, the balance of the Dr. and Cr. columns being the receipts above the payments. We say that the stock account, should on opening the book, show on the Dr. side, the amount of the merchants debts, and on the Cr. side the amount of the merchants capital in trade, the balance of course shows the merchants net property. Should it be asked whether any natural reason exists that the left, rather than right hand column should show the receipts of cash, I answer, there is none. But now the foregoing is the uniformly acknowledged object of the stock and cash accounts, and to

enter the cash received in the right hand column of the cash account, would, unless all the accounts received a like modification, destroy the equilibrium of Drs. and Crs. and render the plan, as far as proof is concerned, no better than single entry. The design of all the definite, and most of the abstract accounts, is established, and is the same in all countries where books are kept by double entry. If a young man fully comprehends the plan of the ledger, whether he learns it in a school or elsewhere, he will understand its arrangements as found in any well regulated counting room, on either side of the Atlantic. After acquiring an ability to make original entries, let the first business of the class be to analyze the arrangement of the ledger.

I am aware in recommending this course, that I oppose the plan of most writers on this subject. The method of those who give a series of abstract rules (rather conundrums) for making journal entries, without giving the principles from which such rules are deduced, is utterly absurd; and to pursue the routine which most teachers and writers recommend, consumes the learner's time and involves him in needless difficulties. Without understanding *principles*, the process becomes purely mechanical, and a class may journalize according to the rules generally given, from the commencement to the close of the year, and then be as incompetent to keep a set of books as at the outset. A rule which appears in most treatises on book keeping, is this, "The thing received is Dr. made to what I give," or thus, "The thing received is made debtor, and the thing parted with is made credit."

Now such and similar rules are advantageous in as far as they happen to be applicable to the case; but to load the memory with them and discard all rational enquiry, is absurd in the extreme. Should I in my business receive a note, preliminary to posting, I should make it Dr. on the journal, and the rule would apply. But the reason is simply this; the object of the account with bills receivable in the ledger, is to show on the Dr. side all notes received, and on the Cr. side all such notes parted with; and since the amount of that note, is, in the event, to be transferred to the Dr. side of this account, it should be first made Dr. on the journal. Thus the design of every account which can grow out of any business, and the distinction between its Dr. and Cr. sides should be fully comprehended by the student, and he should *imagine* the original entry posted *before* he enters it on the Journal.

Let a plan similar to the foregoing be followed, and the one which has been for several years popular in the schools of New England discarded, and I shall expect to find book-keepers in common schools as competent as those in a counting house.

A PRACTICAL EXERCISE.

This winter I introduced an exercise among my pupils, from which I found the most important advantages. I had indeed made some use of it in other schools, but never to any considerable extent. It consisted in incorporating—*framing*, as we called it—words into sentences.

I was in the habit of dictating, or giving out to my pupils, each having his slate—a set of words, which they were required to write down. I always dictated very slowly, that all might have ample time. When the dictation was completed, they were required to exercise their ingenuity in so putting them into sentences of their own construction that they would make sense, as parts of those sentences.

Suppose the words dictated or given out were *apples, corn, moon, hat, gold, red*; and suppose the pupils were required to incorporate them into sentences. The following might be the result of the efforts of some very young pupils.

Apples are good to eat.
Corn grows.
The bright moon.

A new hat.
Gold is yellow.
A piece of red cloth.

Others would probably say much more. Perhaps their lists would read thus:

I am very fond of *apples*.
My father raises *corn*.
Money is made of *gold* and silver and copper.
There is a bird called a *red* bird.

I love to look at the *moon*.
Some *hats* are made of wool.

Sometimes I give them a much longer list than this, and requir-

ed them to select a certain number of the words, such as they chose and "frame in." I have sometimes given out twenty or thirty words, and required them to select seven of those which appeared to them most interesting.

In other instances I have requested all those who preferred to do so, to select some favorite word, and relate, on their slates, a story about it; spending their whole time on that single word and the story. I have in this way, occasionally drawn out quite a long story from a boy who at the first thought he could do nothing.

I recollect in particular, having given out, on a certain occasion, the word *bee* among the rest. One of my boys scarcely more than ten years of age, immediately wrote a long account of an adventure, in a meadow, with a nest of humble bees.

Another mode of this exercise, still more interesting to some of my older pupils, consisted in framing as many of the words of the list as they could into a single sentence or verse. I have sometimes found a half a dozen or even more words crowded into two or three lines across the slate.

This exercise, in its varied forms and diversities, was one of the best I ever introduced into my school. It both interested my pupils and was a source of much instruction. I have sometimes wondered that it is not oftener introduced into schools. Its advantages, among others, are the following:

It is *novel*. Children, it is well known, are always fond of something new. They soon get tired of their old school exercises, as they do of their old playthings. A new exercise, now and then, though it were in its own nature no better than the old, would, in reality, be more valuable; simply from its novelty.

It teaches *spelling*. The pupil, in writing down his words, is expected to spell them correctly. Indeed I sometimes made this a part of the exercise; either going round from scholar to scholar, and examining the slates, or requesting them to bring them to me for examination. In this way more real practical knowledge of spelling was probably acquired, in a lesson of six words, than is sometimes gained by a whole page of words arranged in columns and learned by rote.

It is a capital exercise in *defining*. This indeed, was one leading object. No child can practice in this way without making rapid progress in the knowledge and use of words, especially of the words designed for the exercise. And since we have few text books in defining, this is the best exercise I am acquainted with for a substitute.

It is a good exercise in *writing*. I have known children become tolerable writers merely by writing on their slates. In any event, this exercise cannot fail to be of advantage in this respect.

It may furnish a *reading* lesson. It was customary with me to require my pupils to read their sentences, when thus framed. One great difficulty—perhaps the greatest—in teaching the young to read, is, that they do not enter into the spirit of the author's intention. Even when they appear to understand him, they fall much short of his meaning. But this difficulty is obviated when they form their own lessons. It cannot be otherwise than that they understand them. They must enter into their spirit. But if so, they can read them properly.

How often have I been told by my teachers—how often have I told my pupils the same thing—that the great rule in reading, is to read as we talk! But it is next to impossible to read the language of others as we would talk it; because, after all, it is not our own language, it is that of another. Here, the language, as I have already observed, is the pupil's own; and it is not so difficult for him to read it as he would talk it. Indeed most pupils would be apt to do so, so far as I have observed. Mine certainly were.

It is a valuable exercise in *composition*. No where, perhaps, do the majority of teachers mistake more than in teaching the art of composition. They seem often to expect the pupil, to have thoughts on subjects which are wholly beyond his capacity. Hence it is that they are required to write on abstract subjects; as 'Good manners,' early rising, beauty, riches and the like. And hence it is, too, that the pupils so often dread the task.

I never knew a child that might not be led into the habit of composing with the utmost ease, provided he commenced right. Indeed, so far are they from having a dread of the exercise, I believe most of the young, with suitable management and encouragement, would be very fond of it.

In the case which has led to these remarks, I almost always found my pupils pleased with the idea of writing something of their own; although they were not always, it is true equally pleased to exhibit it to the whole school: nor was this insisted on. How they would have regarded the exercise had I told them that one principal object I had in view, in requiring it, was to teach them composition, I do not know: perhaps I should have frightened them by a name which, by some means or other is to the young almost odious.

It may be made an exercise in *geography*. We have only to give out suitable words as Boston, China, or Maderia, and encourage

them to tell us all they know or can learn about these places; and it then becomes in effect, a lesson—often a very useful one—in this most interesting branch.

The same is true of several other things. By giving the names of distinguished men or women as Alfred, Alexander, Howard, Newell, etc.; of curious beasts, birds or fishes; and of plants, minerals etc., you may at the same time be doing something in the departments of history or biography, or in those of botany, mineralogy and the other branches of natural science. At least, the exercise will have a bearing upon the various sciences I have named: and will tend to furnish the keys to it.

There are several other important advantages resulting from this exercise. One is that it may be used in school to fill up any otherwise vacant moments. Such moments sometimes do occur. Children, for the time seem to have little to do, and are either dispirited or inclined to go to play. In this, or any other emergency, you can easily arrest their attention, and furnish them with pleasing and at the same time useful employment. To do this, all of them must, it is true, have slates; but I consider a slate as necessary to every pupil in the school, as a spelling book, and much more so; and during several of the latter years of my teaching, if parents would not furnish each pupil with a slate and pencil, I bought and loaned them to him.

Another advantage is that it improves in a most harmonious and happy manner, all the faculties of the mind. Memory is not in this case, as it too commonly is in school, exclusively cultivated; they are required to reflect, compare and judge. Especially does it improve the faculty of judging. This is perhaps its highest recommendation.

Lastly, it develops in a most wonderful manner, the peculiar habits and tastes of each individual. We hear much said—and justly too—of the importance of having an instructor understand fully the character of his pupils. Now I know of nothing that will accomplish this object so well as the foregoing exercise. It discovers at once, the leading propensities or characteristic traits of each pupil—I mean if you introduce and manage the exercise properly; otherwise you might defeat the whole intention of it.

If it be asked how this exercise discovers so remarkably the character of the child, I reply; by showing on what topics his thoughts dwell with most pleasure. It is curious indeed to see in what manner pupils will select from a list, say of fifty words, embracing every variety. Some will always select names of qualities or properties, as sweet, green, or hot. Others always select names of number or quantity or amount, as thousands, pounds, etc. Others will select topics still different. But their leading traits of character will be still better known by the manner in which they treat their various topics. Boys of an enterprising or aspiring character will not only choose the name of some distinguished warrior or traveller, but recount more or less of his "glorious" deeds. Others, who are benevolently inclined, though they select even the same name, will relate his deeds of benevolence. Others still trained to the love of money or the gratification of their appetites, are very apt to drag into their little stories something that savors of rich eating or drinking, or of property.

Since I have spoken of conducting these exercises in a proper manner, it is necessary to add that I would always endeavor so to manage it as to have the pupils regard it as a favor; and not as a task. To this end it must not be too long continued, especially at first. It is always better to leave off a little earlier rather than not return to the same fare with a good appetite. Nor is it well to be too critical at first, especially with the exertions of the timid or diffident. By over, or rough criticism, I have sometimes so far discouraged beginners in this exercise, that they never completely recovered from the injury.

Indeed, all exercises in school, of whatever nature they may be, require, in the teacher, a large fund of plain good sense. No male or female teacher can take up any plan or method whatever from another person, and introduce it into school, and render it permanently useful, without certain modifications, or restrictions, to adapt it to the peculiar circumstances of themselves. There is no method of teaching any branch in the world which will always apply to the circumstances of all schools. It has been said that a coat properly cut and made will fit any body. But if this is obviously untrue, how much more untrue is it that particular plans and methods of teaching are adapted to all schools?—For myself, I have no doubt that the exercise which I have here described, and which I deem a highly important one, would be of exceeding great value, in at least some of its features, to all teachers who would enter fully into its spirit. Here is one great secret of many methods of instruction. It is not the improved method itself which does the good, so much as the spirit of him who adopts it. And where a teacher has a proper spirit, and is truly spirited, he may accomplish a great deal by methods in themselves quite inferior, as well as by antiquated or inferior school books and plans for discipline.—*Confessions of a School Master.*

THE TIMES AND MODES OF EXERTING MORAL AND SPIRITUAL INFLUENCE IN SCHOOLS.

Such teachings might be introduced more or less directly at all times. For instance, in the study of geography, suppose a scholar were reciting a lesson on Greenland, how aptly might the teacher speak of the wild deer who live there, and ask the children where they imagine these creatures find food amid those perpetual snows; and then tell them of the delicate moss which grows beneath the surface. In speaking of Africa, he might allude to the foot of the camel, as adapted to the desert sands; and thus, with every place on the face of the earth, the child might associate some new evidence of God's goodness and wisdom. At times, the seasons and their varied peculiarities might be spoken of. Bring in flowers, or a bird's nest, pick up a feather, or a straw; indeed, nothing can be found but what may suggest some important spiritual lesson, and serve as a text book for natural and interesting remarks.

Or, further, suppose a boy happens to find something in the street, and you say you wish to ask all a question. "I should like to have you give me your opinion on this subject;—James Smith found a dollar, and he said, 'I'm glad I've found it, for I shall give it to my mother to buy wood.' 'You ought not to do that, says Richard, because it is not yours.'—'And what makes you say so?' says James, 'for I found it, and William Jones found six-pence the other day, and he said, 'finders are keepers;' and besides, my mother wants wood, and I heard her say, this morning, she had no money to buy any.' Now, scholars, what should you say ought to be done? Ought James Smith to keep that money? What reasons can you give, why he should keep it, and what, why he should not?"

Here the scholars might give their opinions, and then the teacher might give his. He might go into the principles of the thing, and he might close by showing that this money perhaps belonged to such or such a one; for instance, James Smith, by making inquiry, might find that the money belonged to a poor girl, the child of a widow, and that it was the pay for making so many shirts, and that she intended to purchase with it some conveniences for her sick mother. Or, again, conscience may be spoken of, and questions put to the scholars. Do infants have a conscience? Do the bad? Does the conscience ever sleep? Does it ever die? Have you ever felt it? Have you ever read about it? Can you tell any stories or facts about it? Will it go with the soul to another world? and so on.

Or, the teacher may go upon more philosophical ground, and show the child the influence of the Inward and the Outward; show him, that every man makes his own world; that as a man thinketh, so is he, and so is all that he looks upon.

Here is a tree bearing fruit, and three men stand near it.—The first man smacks his lips, and says, "delicious fruit!"—thinking of nothing but his own appetite. The second admires its beauty, and exclaims, "how splendidly the fruit hangs among the green leaves, while the blue sky shines through the branches!" "How good and how beautiful!" says the third. "I thank God that he thus mingles beauty with use, and strives to make his children happy. There is a neighbor round the corner, who has been quite ill this three weeks. I will try to purchase some of that fruit that I may take it to him."

Here is the man of appetite, the man of taste, and the man of devotion and benevolence. They all look at the same tree, do they not? and yet they have as different feelings as if looking at three different trees, in so many different planets. And let these three men go all over the world, and gaze at the same objects, and all the while, they see things in as different light as if in three different worlds.

Or, again; two men live in a valley, full of singing birds and luxuriant foliage. One loves God, and filled with calm joy, feels as if in a paradise; the other has, in this very place, committed a murder; to him it is as a hell. The music stings his ears. The foliage is spotted with blood, and the sighing wind sounds like the gasp of the dying. These men stand in the same valley, yet the one sees beauty; the other, gloom;—the one is happy, the other wretched. This is the power of the Inward over the Outward. *This is every man's making*

his own world. And so always with the virtuous and the vicious: the one says, "Who can show us any good?" the other exclaims, "The earth is full of His riches."

Thus you may take a thousand questions, and unfold them to children, and awaken thoughts that will never perish.

I would have teachers study the heart, and endeavor to implant right motives—to go to the very root and establish sound principles.

Outward goodness is a mere shell. It is the shadow of a shade. There must be something within, or it has no substance. Such goodness will only follow religion, like one of John Bunyan's characters, while she wears her silver slippers. Such goodness falls in the hour of temptation. It reminds one of the Oriental tale Lord Bacon tells of, where a cat was changed to a lady, and she did very well, and behaved very lady-like, till a mouse ran through the room, when she was down on hands and feet, and chased it. So with children; if their goodness is only an outward thing, when temptation comes, they will down and follow. Give them right motives, sound principles, and they will be firm. In after life, the dashing waves of affliction may howl around them, but they will stand serene amid the tempest.

Luther once said, "Men are not made truly righteous by performing certain actions which are externally good, but men must have righteous principles in the first place, and then they will not fail to perform virtuous actions."

The true teacher will strive to enlighten the conscience, and set before the scholar motives that will endure; to awaken feelings of honor, a love for truth, and a supreme desire for the highest excellence.

Some may say, "this sounds well, and may be very true in the abstract; but in our schools, such a state of things could not be brought about." I am aware that there are great difficulties. But what is good in theory, we should strive to make good in practice. Besides, much of what has been spoken of, has already, in some schools, been put in practice. In one of the public schools in this city, it is not uncommon for girls, who, in moments of thoughtlessness, have committed faults, to go up, after the school is over, and voluntarily give information concerning themselves, to the teacher. In this, their only reward is a feeling that they have acted honorably, for they are marked, and thus suffer in rank. At other times, when certain scholars have been reproved, others have, from a sense of right, held up their hands, and, when called upon, stated that they had, during the week, committed the same fault, and they felt that they, in justice, must suffer also.

At one of the private schools, where there is an interesting group of little girls, whose teacher diffuses a spiritual influence through all that she does; it is her custom, at the close of the quarter, and especially on the last day of the year, to tell each scholar what she considers her particular failing; and what she hopes each one will strive to amend during the year. These are always occasions of interest, and she has found them to be productive of good. In this school, was a little girl about eight years old. She was a child of great natural ability, kind-hearted, and of great strength of purpose; but she had no control over her feelings. Naturally of a nervous temperament, the least thing excited her, and caused her to fall into the most violent passions. She would stamp with anger, and for a time, appear unconscious of what she said or did. On the last day of December, as the teacher in turn addressed each scholar, "Oh, what good things," said she to her, "I should hope of you, if you did not yield so to your feelings. How I wish that before the close of another quarter, you may have learned to control your temper, for this destroys your own happiness, and that of all those around you."

She made no reply, but seemed deeply affected. The next morning, it being new year's day, many of the scholars came running in with some little offering of affection. This little girl stood looking at them for a moment, and then, throwing her arms around her teacher's neck, she whispered, "I have no present to bring you, but I bring something which I know you will like as well." "And what is that?" said the teacher. "A firm resolution to govern my temper," was the reply; "and I know I shall succeed, for I am not trying in my own strength I have asked God to help me."

From that day until the close of the quarter, not once did that child give way to her temper; and although the blood would often rush to her cheek, and the tear start to her eye, yet she resolutely controlled every expression of passion.

Objections arise in the minds of some to the spread of moral, and spiritual influences in our schools. They fear the schools will become sectarian. But, can we not distinguish between our own doctrinal views, and the vital spirit of Christianity, the universal soul of religion? I suppose that all could unite in singing the hymn the angels sang at the birth of Christ, and all could listen to such sermons as our Lord's sermon upon the mount.

It seems to me that any intelligent teacher could speak upon ten thousand subjects, without betraying to what sect he belonged. He could speak of all the Christian graces—of the power of prayer—of the love of God—of the beauty of holiness. He could, with his whole soul, urge them to be pure in heart, and to hunger and thirst after righteousness. He could speak of the beautiful and sublime truths of ethics, and natural religion. He could instruct the young in all the duties they owe to society. He could teach them, while developing their intellectual nature, the importance of strengthening their higher powers, and keeping their lower propensities in subjection.—While all nature is one vast laboratory, full of wonders, while all history is one interminable crowd of good and bad examples, while the human soul is gifted with such hopes and fears, passions, and aspirations, the teacher surely will have ample scope, without touching upon his own doctrinal opinions. Let him speak of love to God, and good will to man, and then, without infringing upon private views, he will be to them what the Law was to the Jews—"a school-master to bring them to Christ."

The name of God is whispered in the wind, woven in the leaves, crystallized in rocks. Every thing speaks of Him, from the grain of sand to the rolling planet. Why then, in a universe so vocal with the praise of God, should the teacher be dumb? Why, when the meanest reptile that crawls in the dust of the earth bears witness to the goodness of Jehovah, should the teacher, gifted with speech, remain silent? Shall he speak of the law of gravitation, as if it were a law by itself? of Nature, as if Nature were all. The wide world is God's presence-chamber—the laws are his will, and Nature is his work. Let the child see that the teacher feels this; let the teacher bow down with awe, and the child will bow down also.

Then will the teacher feel that he has room for the highest powers of his nature. Then will he reverence his profession. Then will he go among his fellows and feel not one whit abashed. Among merchants, and artists, and statesmen, he will walk erect.

Then will the humblest teacher of the most humble school feel a joy in her vocation. Though she is poor, and her children are poor, her work is a noble work, and not only honorable, but blessed before God. Though her little flock should be collected from garrets and cellars, though the children are clad in the coarsest garb of poverty, they are the lambs of the Great Shepherd, and may be made worthy to be numbered with the first-born of the church, and prepared to become fellow citizens with the saints forever.—*Waterston's Lecture.*

CONSCIENCE.—Conscience, as all know, may be listened to or disregarded; and in this, habit has great influence. The following story from the *Juvenile Miscellany*, illustrates this:

A lady who found it difficult to awake so early as she desired in the morning, purchased an alarm watch. This kind of watch is so contrived as to strike with a loud buzzing noise at any time the owner pleases. The lady placed the watch at the head of the bed, and at the appointed time she found herself effectually roused by the loud sound. She immediately obeyed the summons; and felt better all day for her early rising. This continued for several weeks. The alarm watch faithfully performed its office, and was distinctly heard so long as it was promptly obeyed. But, after a time, the lady grew tired of early rising, and when aroused by the noisy monitor, merely turned herself and slept again. In a few days the watch ceased to arouse her from slumber. It spoke just as loudly as ever, but she did not hear it, because she had acquired the habit of disobeying it. Finding that she might just as well be without an alarm watch, she formed the wise resolution, that if she ever heard the sound again, she would jump up instantly, and she would never allow herself to disobey the friendly warning.

Just so it is with conscience. If we obey its dictates, even to the most trifling particulars, we always hear its voice clear and strong.—But if we allow ourselves to do what we fear is not quite right, we shall grow more and more sleepy, until the voice of conscience has no longer any power to awaken us. *Fireside Education.*

NEWTOWN—EXTRACT FROM A LETTER.

"You wished me to state to you the influence our Academy had exerted on the common schools, with some statistical information.

When our Academy commenced operations two years ago last October, the common wages paid for teachers in our schools, was from \$10 to 20 per month for male teachers, and from 75 cts. to \$2 per week for female teachers, besides board.

Our schools were in a tolerably good condition, and extended their benefits to most of the population. But they admitted of improvement.

The Academy led the way in classifying the pupils, and using a regular class book in each study. The Board of Visitors recommended the same course in the common schools, both at the examination of teachers, and at visiting the schools. The plan was pleasing to the teachers generally. The greatest complaint was, that the scholars were obliged to study at home, in order to learn all the lessons required. But the plan was followed out with the summer schools. Teachers began to be more particular, and a corresponding interest was manifest on the part of parents. One school after another adopted the plan, as it recommended itself to their reason, so that teachers were required, who understood the system, and the Academy furnished many such teachers, their influence was extended, and we were pleased to see improvement gradually, though silently going on in our common schools. We have not yet accomplished all that is to be done, though we feel that something has been begun. The wages of teachers have been raised at least 20 per cent, and good teachers are still in demand. Such schools as then paid \$10, now pay \$12 per month, and those that had paid \$20, are now giving \$25 per month, and in this proportion for female teachers. How much the Academy may have aided in this change, I cannot say. In looking over the list of its members for the two years, I find that forty seven teachers have attended on its instruction, most of whom carry out our system of classifying pupils, and of reciting by classes.

I would mention another fact, at which I have been much surprised. During the two years and upwards, in which our school has been in operation, numbering from 50 to 90 pupils, brought together from various parts of the United States, with different dispositions, habits and manners, and varying in age, from 10 to 20, I have not had a case of disagreement among the pupils, requiring the interference of the teacher, come to my knowledge. Such a state of friendly feeling I have never before known, in the practice of 12 years' teaching. For the last two years, we have hardly failed, at the opening and closing of the school, to spend from 15 to 20 minutes in reading the scriptures, prayer and singing as a devotional exercise, as an exercise of the voice, and as an amusement, varying the words and tunes to each particular, and I attribute to these causes, the delightful harmony that has so generally prevailed among the pupils. Do therefore insist on as much of these exercises as can be adopted in our common schools. I have witnessed the trial and effects of music among small scholars, and one unacquainted with its power to soften and unite the feelings of such, would be surprised at the results. And cannot the Bible in this christian land, be used as a book of morals, without exciting sectarian jealousies? I am pleased with the remarks of the Rev. H. Bushnell on this subject, in your last number, and wish they might find a hearty response in the good sense of every citizen."

WETHERSFIELD, ROCKY HILL SOCIETY.

We received many months since a valuable communication from the Visitors of this school society in reply to sundry inquiries of ours, which we intended to have submitted to our readers ere this. The paper is drawn up by Dr. Chapin, who for more than FIFTY YEARS has been familiar with the common schools of the State as a teacher or visitor. The presence of such a man as a member of the Board of Examiners has had the effect to deter such persons as were poorly qualified, from offering themselves as candidates for the office of teachers.

Respected Friend :—The visiting committee, of the school society in Rocky Hill, Conn., present the following statement of facts, and of their views, in compliance with your request.

1. The original law, regulating the disposal and application of the Common School Fund, appears to have been completed in 1799. From that year inclusive, down to the present moment, this society has, with entire punctuality, especially as far as relates to the visiting committee and its duties, conformed to the requisitions of the statute. This committee, with the exception of an individual, has been, and is, a changeable board. One has, during the existence of the law, been a member. He has attended the examination of every teacher; has, with others, and pursuant to statute visited every school, annually and repeatedly; and, more frequently than

this, as a friend to early, and particularly to moral, education, spent hours and hours in each school. Such have been the opportunities of observation enjoyed.

2. This school society is small in extent. It is supposed not to exceed three and a half miles square. Its population varies. With little or no increase, its average number, during the last forty years, may have been 1100. Its primary schools are four. Generally, but not precisely every year, it has had, for a few months, a school of the higher order. It has uniformly maintained summer schools, kept by intelligent and respectable females. In a few instances, male teachers have, both winter and summer, been employed in the center district. Parents and guardians have, in the more laborious months, needed the assistance of their larger children and wards.

3. The committee rejoice and bless God, while they contemplate the successful zeal for improvement, by which our age and country are distinguished. As, in the department of the mechanic arts, while no new principle is invented, there is, in many branches, an efficient application of principles, long since known; so, in the elements of literature and science, advances are made in the facilities and extent of acquisition. School books are nearer perfection. Explanations are more simple and plain. Different authors are, however, by far too greatly multiplied. One author, for instance, N. Webster, or at most, two, upon the same subject, and in the same school, must be, on every account, preferable to a greater number. Upon this subject the committee have repeatedly given orders and directions. But notwithstanding this, they have found it difficult, even for the short period of three consecutive years, to carry through a strict adherence to their directions. Every new author seems impelled by an incurable craving of money and fame. Printers also, and publishers, and venders, seem to cherish a hope of pecuniary benefit. Hence, the multiplication of elementary books, on the same subject, by different authors. Hence, too, the plausible representations in every one's favor, by which parents and guardians are induced to purchase and send them into the school room. As might well be expected, embarrassment, by confusion and perplexity, follows.

4. The conviction is felt, that forty families, or 200 people, are a standing number for a primary school district of course, considering the variety of ages, capacities and attainments—the committee conclude, that the number of children, in any school, and in the charge of one teacher, need not be less than thirty; and it ought not to exceed forty. Consequently, our primary schools are, the most of them, too large. Both individual, therefore, and domestic and public well being, invites a division. What, if expense is thus increased? It will never transcend ability. But in what can cost be more profitably expended, than in the most thorough intellectual and moral training of childhood and youth?

5. The committee think favorably of model and normal schools. Unquestionably government should employ its ample means, for their establishment and encouragement. An individual of this committee, years ago, had opportunities of witnessing the beginning and progress of such an institution, and under the most propitious auspices, in Andover, Mass. In several instances the committee have seen the result of an institution in Conn. having, at least, partly in view, the education of teachers. To Bacon Academy in Colchester, they now refer. The committee have examined, approved and introduced, quite a number of teachers from that respectable seminary. They have generally, at examination, appeared intelligent, and sufficiently exact in the elementary branches, which they were to teach. Some of them have succeeded well; others, not sufficiently to be desired for a second term. The committee believe that not one of them has succeeded, in proportion to the promises which his elementary knowledge exhibited at examination, indicated. Still, every one was less deficient, perhaps, than he would have been, without the advantages of that school.

6. To the committee, it appears evident, that mere scholarship—be its exactness and precision perfect—will never, of itself, make a successful teacher. The secret of success has been long found to consist in that address, which induces the pupils to try—which attaches them to the teacher, and to the school—and to the employments assigned them, whether for the daytime, or for the evening. Such address is innate. It is a rare gift. Not more, the committee are convinced, than eight, or at most ten per cent. of the nearly 200, whom on examination they have approved and introduced, have possessed enough of this innate discernment of the successful address, to make it possible for them, even by the aid of the best normal schools, ever to become good teachers. For

7. This innate discernment of that address, which induces children to do their best, is incommunicable. It is an instinctive perception of the word, the look, the action, that will hit right—that will attract, win, please, rather than repel. It cannot be imparted by instruction, or impressed by example. It cannot be discovered by examination. An accurate discernor can more correctly decide, whether a teacher has this innate qualification, by sitting three hours in the school room—critically observing the teacher, and the

manner in which the pupils regard him, than by examining him abstractly three months. The law requiring examinations is, nevertheless good, and ought to be sustained. It puts those who think of presenting themselves on the look out. Here the committee would just add, that the natural faculty—so indispensable to success—manifests itself very differently, as to form, in different persons, even if, by them severally, it is possessed in equal degrees. The result, however, that of inciting their children to their best doing, will be similar, great as may be the varieties of manner. Where the faculty exists in any measure, it is capable of improvement. Hence the desirableness of normal schools.

8. The committee do not doubt that in every population of two or three hundred, not less than seven or eight are formed with this faculty, so necessary to successful teaching. In many instances of such population, outward and incidental circumstances can be such as to prevent these individuals from undertaking the task of school government and instruction. If one, in this proportion, can be found and employed in the work, it is enough. The committee deem it a grateful duty to see and acknowledge the beneficent wisdom of providence, in this arrangement. The natural qualification is bestowed on a number sufficient—the preventives of a large majority whatever they may—to meet the public wants of community. For a selection of those well adapted individuals, who would be put to the work, no specific and infallible rule aside from experiment has yet been discovered.

9. Normal and model school may assist, the committee feel assured, in this selection. Let them therefore, as mighty auxiliaries, in a cause so unquestionably important and good, be established and duly encouraged. But let not the public expectation from them, be too high. Perfection in our world is not yet found attainable in practice. Approaches towards it are indeed making. They are obvious to our perceptive and rational sensitiveness. Let them be steadily and perseveringly pushed forward, but only with that rapidity which is safe, because consistent with good speed.

10. The committee find, as they judge, about the same proportion of deficiency among parents, with that among teachers. Hence the essential necessity of legislative, judicial, and executive action. Throw away the restraints which this action lays upon human depravity, and its weakness, folly and wickedness; and who can avoid foreseeing, that the world would soon show nothing better than the woes of despotic barbarism? But every parent can do much in aid of this cause, however deficient in government, and the talent which induces children to do their best. Every one can encourage the young to attend school with punctuality. Every one can furnish the books and stationery requisite for the best use of schooling opportunities. Every one can avoid bringing ruin upon the young by cherishing prejudices against the teacher. To such parental duties, then, as are within the scope of ordinary parental talents, let the press, let legislative action, let the considerate and influential, untiringly move those to whom are committed the first opportunities of training and shaping the mind, in the most tender and impressive period of intelligent existence. Especially, let every effort have, for its basis, not only intellectual attainments, but, as pre-eminently supreme in importance, that moral improvement, which makes the good citizen, both for earth and heaven.

11. It is much easier to name the deficiencies of every human system, than to describe the needed remedy. The failures in early education, begin with heads of families. The imperfection of teachers is secondary, though nearly parallel with that of parents and guardians. The visiting committee, of every school society, seconded by influential men and women, can do much in arousing the heads of families, and summoning them to a conscientious consideration of their duty. Teachers can be proved by experiment only.—There must consequently be exposure to instances of failure and disappointment every year, and in every society. Fidelity on the part of friends to early education, is the highway to heaven's blessing. With that blessing, the remedy though perhaps undefinable, and in its progress imperceptible, will, nevertheless, be certain.—Legislative acts, upon this subject, and in addition to those already in force, are not seen by anticipation, to ensure the desired improvement. Public opinion is mighty. Give this a right direction, on the subject, and the greatest benefits, which the rising generation is capable of receiving, may be expected.

12. Neither in this society, nor elsewhere, have the committee seen satisfactory evidence, that greater wages, or rendering men school masters for life, will remove defects, and purify the system. In nearly each of the few instances in which a teacher has been obtained here, who possessed the incommunicable secret of making children love to try, and do their best—the longer such an admirable instructor has been retained in our service, the more dull and inefficient has he become. Fifty years ago, three instances, partly, at least, in proof of this same natural consequence, existed simultaneously in Hartford. The committee therefore say, that in their opinion, wages, which are par with compensation in other departments, are

enough. They are, furthermore, hardly yet ready to endorse the bill giving school-masters a salary: and installing them for life, in the pedagogical charge.

13. The committee cannot doubt, that the progress of primary education, in this society, and in others, the cities always excepted, has kept pace, and will, with the general progress of the great commonwealth. This, as a fact inseparable from republican freedom, may be continually expected. Faster than the progress of popular and general improvement—that of education, whether primary, academical, or collegiate and classical, cannot be justly anticipated.

14. In relation to the movements of education, in this State, whether direct or retrograde, during the last forty years—this committee has no competent means of correctly judging. The Secretary of the Commission Board has access to the materials required for a just decision of the question. He stands on high ground, overlooking the great community. The field he surveys is the whole. The views of the committee are contracted. They are confined to this small spot. Their philosophical inference is warranted by the general principle, expressed in the paragraph next preceding.

15. The literary qualifications of our teachers generally exceed those of the same class in 1799, and some years downward. This is not because we happily obtain a greater proportion of those, who innately possess the mysterious secret of success; but expecting to be examined, they look more carefully at the elements, and may be said to know more. Scholarship, however, is not the great qualification. Mere instruction is essential, indeed. Still it is among the least difficult branches of the teacher's duty. Ordinary faculties are sufficient, faithfully employed, to keep the teacher ahead of his pupils, in any of our schools. Among our most successful teachers, have been several of those, who, at examination, appeared miserably ignorant. Strong were the doubts, and serious the hesitation, whether they should be introduced or rejected. But the approbation given, and the charge received—every thing, in the school, has, forthwith, presented a bright and pleasing aspect. The little eyes of the pupil would sparkle with intense eagerness to do as the teacher said, and to gain his commendation. Their minds would in elasticity resemble well tempered steel. On the other hand, one of the best scholars the committee ever examined and approved, one from a celebrated academy, a distinct object of which was to qualify teachers of common schools—was little, or nothing better, in the midst of his pupils, than a bunch of straw stuck up there. The children seemed to feel no interest, either in him or in the lessons proposed. Of him and of others similar, it appeared to be an unaccountable characteristic, that they would themselves be utterly insensible of failure.

16. The comparative number within the limits of our society, who cannot read, is unknown to the committee. They believe, however, that there is not a youth, or an adult person—excepting, possibly, a nonagenarian or two—who, if reared here, is unable to read. The committee are not aware of any such, who are thus ignorant. But they find some in every school, who have no relish for reading; who abhor the very sight of a book; and who, it is apprehended, can never be taught to read well.

17. The best teachers cannot help children to learn faster than they are able. This truism is not perhaps, thought of as often as would be useful. Precocity is rare, and the committee believe, never desirable. Precocious minds should not be assumed, as a standard of capacity, by which to measure the mental powers of the millions in childhood. No master of instruction has skill to lead unripe minds, deeper into complicated and profound questions, than their strength of intellectual vision can penetrate. The immature are competent, it is true, to recite, memoriter, the words which describe the mathematical calculus, in its sublime varieties—whether differential or experiential—whether integral or literal. But the pretence, so boastingly, in some places proclaimed, that they comprehend these realities—or the higher branches of mathematics and natural philosophy, or even in arithmetic, much beyond the mechanical operations in working, not applying the ground rules—every such pretence, is, in the opinion of the committee, both erroneous and deceptive. Question those children, out of their rote and memoriter track, and they are fast aground.

18. The fashion of teaching moral truth and duty, like other fashions, varies. Whether the amount now given is as great—and whether the effects are now as propitious, as forty years ago, the committee would not undertake to say. Catechising in schools, and at times especially selected, as was formerly practised, is now, at least among us, omitted. In many respects the Sabbath school is a pleasing and promising substitute. The committee judge, that those who punctually attend this precious institution—both teachers and pupils, including Bible classes—acquire a more thorough knowledge of revealed and perfect morality, than was formerly obtained by the catechetical discipline of the district schools. The difference between the former and the present mode may be thus considered. A greater number, in the past, are learnt by cate-

chisms, something of the eternal and forever obligatory moral law, than are now instructed in that vast concern. Those youth and children who do not attend the Sabbath school, and they form a considerably numerous class—live, probably, and will die, like heathen, without the knowledge which is necessary for salvation. Those on the other hand, who attend the Sabbath school, have more clear knowledge of truth and duty, and salvation, than the past generations had means of acquiring. Minds thus enlightened, enlarged and enriched, by revealed morality, do, it may be well supposed, exert upon the other class, a restraining and wholesome influence in the things of this world, and of peace in society. The committee, therefore, thank God for the Sabbath school; and they devotedly trust, that its salutary influence will continue to be extended, and ere long, reach and bless the rising generation, in every inhabited region of the world.

WETHERSFIELD, NEWINGTON SOCIETY.

MR. EDITOR:—The importance of attention to school-houses has been so often urged in your Journal, that I suppose you will be gratified to hear of any cases in which your recommendations have been followed. I visited, a few days since, the school-house of the south middle district in Newington, and I cannot but think that a brief description of it will merit a place in your columns. Within the last year about \$200 have been expended, this sum having been raised by subscription. The inside has been entirely renewed. The room is now 24 feet by 20. The desks are upon a level floor, each desk accommodating four writers, and the seats being separate. There are three aisles across the room, one in the center and one at each side. The seats are designed to accommodate fifty pupils, and vary in height to suit different ages, all being immovable. In front of all, on a platform elevated eight inches, is the teacher's desk. On the right of this desk is the blackboard, with a seat for recitation. On the left is a small entry and the stove, with pipe running through the room over the center aisle. In the upper ceiling are two slides for ventilation. The casements are painted white, and the desks with a light lead color.

The outside of the building is very tasteful. It is painted white; and a neat cupola, with green blinds on its four sides, furnishes a place for a bell weighing about ninety pounds. I might mention also the wood-house, which is large and convenient, and a fine row of trees lately set out near, which adds to the whole appearance.

I should willingly describe the organization and general arrangements of the school itself, if I were not in doubt whether you can consistently admit into your paper commendation of particular teachers. But there is much to gratify one who has any enthusiasm in the cause of education, in seeing such a school house and such a school.

PENNSYLVANIENSIS.

We wish that our correspondent, whom we suppose to be a valued friend, now on a visit from his adopted State had given us a minute description of the above school, taught we believe by Mr. Levi S. Deming.

WASHINGTON.

Judicious co-operation of Visitors and Teachers.

Having been interested in a verbal account of the course pursued by the Board of School Visitors in the First School Society in Washington, we requested a written communication on the subject from the chairman of the Board, the Rev. Mr. Hayes, and have received the following.

DEAR SIR—Agreeably to your request I send you a statement of the course pursued by the visitors of common schools in this place.

The books recommended in the various departments of reading, geography, arithmetic, grammar, and history, are regularly arranged in each branch, from the more simple to the more difficult, under the numbers 1, 2, 3, &c., so that the instructor can have no hesitation as to the book the scholar wants in any department of study.

A strict attention to orthography, pauses, &c. as contained in the spelling book is enjoined; also regular spelling lessons from the spelling book twice per day, in which the scholars are to go up after the ancient custom.

In visiting the schools we take a list of the names of the scholars in each several class, written down in a column on the left margin of a sheet of paper; and opposite the name of every scholar, on the right and under each exercise, we note the character of his or her reading by the figures 1, 2, 3, 1½, 2½, &c.; also the branch of study in which he is engaged and his advancement in it, whether beginning, half or two thirds through, or reviewing; also the character of the writing and spelling and the knowledge the school has of the forepart of the spelling book, &c. If, in any branch of study, the scholar has been through a book once, we enjoy a review; if more than

once, we direct him to another branch. If the classes are not properly arranged we suggest to the instructor a different arrangement. This is our first visit; and, as you will perceive, it is a laborious one: but the advantages of this course will be apparent. We have full notes of the standing of every scholar; and we inform them that when we come again we shall hear them *only* in that which they have not recited or studied before. The scholar is driven ahead, and the more rapidly under a full sense that at the next visit we shall understand definitely his proficiency. The teacher sees that his own character also is at stake and plies anew his energies to advance the school in their studies. We can compare accurately the different schools in the society and arouse in each a laudable emulation to excel. We can carry the scholars on by a steady process through the various branches of common school education, and at the close certify, if need be, that they are now qualified for a school of a higher order.

Now, sir, if you have ever visited a school where there were between thirty and forty different kinds of books, and each parent had enjoined upon the child to study his own particular book, and seen in that school as many classes almost as scholars, while spelling and the spelling-book were neglected, the teacher embarrassed, and all studying without plan or order; if you have visited other schools and heard the same scholar recite in the same book season after season, and year after year, every season beginning at the commencement of the book and going a few pages farther perhaps than the season previous, and after having thoroughly completed the study, going over it and over it again and again; if in such circumstances you have realized that the mental powers of the child, which should be acquiring vigor by study, were actually losing their energy by this process of detention, while, at the same time, habits of idleness were thus induced; and if, after visiting schools for many years, you have found, that under the present frequent change of instructors, these evils must inevitably exist and render our schools in a great measure useless, unless vigorous measures were taken to prevent them; you would readily appreciate our feelings and motives in prescribing definitely the number and arrangement of books, and entering on our present system of a full and thorough examination of our schools.

Yours very respectfully,
GORDON HAYES.

NEW HAVEN COUNTY COMMON SCHOOL CONVENTION.

We omitted to notice earlier, the proceedings of this convention which was held at New Haven on the 24th of December last. We abridge the following from the New Haven Herald.

Prof. Olmsted was chosen Chairman and Augustus Lines, Secretary.

A statement of the condition of the schools and school houses in the first district in this city, was then given by A. Lines and R. S. Hinman, Esq.

The Rev. Mr. Bacon made some remarks respecting the condition of the public schools some twenty years ago, stating that at that time, there was not a school house in the city. He expressed his opinion that great improvements had been made,—school houses had been erected, the schools continued through the year, and concluded by recommending the school houses recently built and now building, in the first district in this city, as models.

Dr. Goodsell, from Woodbridge, gave a history of the condition of the common schools in that town, which were represented to be in a flourishing condition—that an increased interest was evidently manifested, and great improvements had been made.

The Rev. H. N. Day, from Waterbury, gave an account of the condition of the common schools in that town, which he described to be in rather a low condition, the society being divided into sixteen districts, which he considered a great evil; but that an effort was now making for an improvement.

The Rev. Mr. Putnam, from Hamden, made some remarks respecting the condition of the schools in that town, which were represented in rather a low condition, a great want of interest in parents, and a great want of books, &c.

Rev. Mr. Day of Waterbury, Rev. Mr. Bacon, S. A. Thomas, E. C. Herrick and R. S. Hinman, Esq. of New Haven were appointed a committee to examine into the books in general use in common schools, and submit to an adjourned meeting, such a list as they can recommend to be adopted.

The convention adjourned to meet again at the call of the President of the County Association.

NEW CANAAN.

This town exhibited evidences of a livelier interest in common schools than any other which we have visited in the county. The

center district can be referred to as an actual illustration of the wisdom of employing a well qualified female teacher for the younger scholars and the girls, and a teacher of the requisite attainments for the boys, including necessarily many quite advanced in years and in their studies. Both departments exhibited a good state of discipline and instruction. We were particularly gratified with what we saw and heard in the girls' department. Such a teacher should not be lost to the district, if any reasonable advance of wages can secure her continued services. The committee may look through the state and not find many her superiors, or equals, in either common or select schools.

We make a few extracts from the "Report of the Overseers of Schools to the School Society, made March 26, 1839."

After stating the time of their appointment, their organization by the choice of chairman and clerks within a week, the appointment of an examining committee, the subsequent examination and approval of all who taught the district schools, their Report goes on to say—

"The overseers have visited all the schools twice according to law, except that in the second visitation of two of the schools, (Nos. 2 and 4,) only one overseer was present, whereas the law requires that at least two should be present.

The first visitation was begun Dec. 4, and closed Dec. 18, 1838. The second visitation was begun March 1, and closed March 12, 1839. A full half day was generally devoted to each school. One overseer has spent eight and a half days, another five and a half, another four, another three and a half, another three, another two, and another one and a half; making an aggregate of twenty-seven days devoted to the work of visiting the schools of this society for the last six months.

We have carefully filled the blanks sent to us by the Board of Commissioners of Common Schools, and handed them over to the clerk of the society in due time, as required by law.

Respecting the condition of the schools within our limits the overseers report that there have been ten public schools in operation under eleven teachers, for periods of time varying from 13 to 26 weeks, and averaging 20 3/7 weeks.

The wages of the teachers vary from twenty-eight to seven dollars a month. The average is sixteen dollars. The total amount expended is \$822 75. All the teachers except two furnished their own board.

Whole number of children between 4 and 16, enumerated in August, is, 566

The number of pupils attending the winter schools is 394

Of these ten are under 4, or over 16 years of age, leaving in the common schools, 384

Number estimated to be in private schools, 42

Number not attending any school, 140

Average attendance at all the public schools, 263

The prevalence of sickness in some of the districts considerably diminished the average attendance.

On the whole we think the schools the past season have been decidedly better than the average of the last six or seven years.

The principal studies pursued are reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and grammar. Some few are studying algebra, surveying and natural philosophy."

Then follows a list of books and the number of each kind found in all the schools. Town's Spelling Book "the overseers are not prepared to recommend." Porter's Rhetorical Reader is "highly approved," and the general use of the Holy Scriptures is noticed and commended.

"School Houses. Eight stand entirely in the highway; two at the corner of the roads, and one is surrounded on all sides by roads, to the annoyance of both pupils and teachers.

The house in No. 3 deserves especial notice as being small, low, in a bad state of repair, and altogether inadequate to the accommodation of the 82 pupils on its list last winter.

The house in No. 1, is in good repair and convenient in most respects."

The overseers close their report with recommending that the annual meeting be held in the spring and be disconnected with any town or political meeting whatever—that the number of overseers be diminished, and that some compensation be allowed for their services.

"To visit ten schools in the manner required by law, would require forty days every year. If they are not thus visited your committee suppose that it cannot be certified that the schools have been 'kept in all respects according to law.' By such certificate the society received annually over seven hundred dollars from the School Fund.

These recommendations were adopted at the annual meeting of the society, held on the 30th of Sept. 1839.

Summer School. The above report covers only the winter schools

—he following are the principal facts as connected with summer schools.

In ten schools two male teachers and eight females were employed for an average period of twenty-two and a half weeks, at an average wages of \$16.50 a month. Total amount of wages \$833.50. Whole number of pupils on register 491, average attendance 246.

The summer schools appeared better than in the winter. Five of the teachers were the same.

If the overseers of the schools would as faithfully discharge all the duties required of them as has been done in this school society, including the annual report to the school society, a most decided change for the better would pass over the face of our schools, and in a few years we might be the best educated State in the Union.

SALISBURY—"SMITH LIBRARY."

From a communication, lately received, from a son of one of the original founders of the 'Smith Library,' Salisbury, we are satisfied that we were led by our previous information, into several important errors respecting the origin of this library, and the agency of Mr. Smith as connected with it. We hasten to correct these errors, and should be glad to do so, if our space would allow, by inserting the whole of Mr. Norton's interesting letter.

The library was founded in 1771, by a number of gentlemen of Salisbury, who in their articles of association, set forth their object to be, to promote virtue, education and learning, and to discourage vice and immorality, by procuring a library of books on divinity, philosophy, history &c. A sum of \$156.34 was subscribed, the association availed themselves of the return of Mr. Smith to England in 1772, to make their purchases in London, Mr. Smith having kindly offered to do this for them, and to send the books to New York, free of charge for commission, freight &c. Out of respect for the man and his services thus rendered, the Proprietors called the library after his name.

As to Mr. Smith's property being confiscated, there is no evidence of this. On the other hand, during the whole war, Mr. Smith had an authorized agent acting for him in Salisbury, and to him were consigned at the close of the struggle, a quantity of English goods, which were disposed of for Mr. Smith's benefit. In 1776, the State of Connecticut took temporary possession of the furnace, and had cannon &c. cast, to aid on the war. Subsequent to the close of the war, the furnace passed into other hands by ordinary conveyance, as the Records of the town show.

We have thus given the substance of Mr. Norton's letter. We thank him for thus giving us an opportunity of correcting any errors into which we may have been led respecting this library. What was said in the article referred to, respecting the Bingham Library, is stated to be correct.

NEW HAVEN FIRST SCHOOL SOCIETY.

The following is the conclusion of the Report of the School Visitors for 1839.

The Committee would particularly call the attention of the people of this Society to the subject of the Books used in our schools—not only are not our scholars sufficiently provided with books, as to number, but what they have are so few of them by the same author, or of the same edition, that the teachers cannot form the scholars into classes of convenient sizes.

There should never be but one kind of book for one branch of study. We would therefore recommend that the Committee of School Visitors for the coming year be particularly instructed upon the kind of books to be used.

We would also call the attention of the several Districts in the Society to the necessity of immediately providing backs to the seats of the scholars in all our school rooms. The health and comfort of the children who attend our common schools require them.

We would also recommend to the parents of scholars to visit the schools often. It assists the teachers very much, and encourages the children.

We would also call the attention of those who are interested in the success of common schools, to the manner of defraying the expenses of the schools. It should be so altered that the burden of educating the poor children should fall equally upon the whole community, and not as it now does, upon those who send the most children to school.

As it now is, the man who sends no children to school pays nothing whatever towards the schooling of those who are unable to school themselves. This your Committee think very unjust and unequal.

By order of the Committee.

R. S. HINMAN, Chairman.

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